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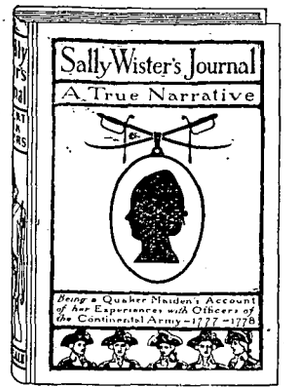
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 27, 1903.

The Week.

As we anticipated, the prospect of an extra session of Congress in October dwindles under discussion. It is now rumored that even the Senate Finance Committee is unable to agree upon the terms of that currency bill which was so comfortably to be enacted into law before the regular session. This is saying nothing of the difficulty of getting Congress to assent. And they would reckon inexcusably ill who should leave out politics as certain to affect the chances of any important bill on the eve of the November elections. The whole scheme has, in fact, had from the first the air of being a kind of happy-thought statesmanship. Something ought to be done promptly to make the currency more responsive to the needs of trade; therefore, let us all agree that it will be done. But it was a wise philosopher who said that it is a common "solecism of power" to think to attain its end without employing the necessary means. In the case in hand, the means were obviously wanting. It would be impossible, as things are, to induce Western Republicans to agree to those speculative riders which the ingenious Senator Aldrich was proposing to fasten upon the currency bill. With those cut away, his interest was bound to flag, as it is confidently reported from Providence to-day that it has already done.

President Roosevelt must see by this time that there is no such thing as satisfying the Grand Army veterans. He threw Commissioner Evans overboard, and gave them Mr. Ware, whom, to the alarm of that gentleman's friends, the Grand Army faintly praises. A Commissioner of Pensions who does not receive a certificate of character in the shape of condemnation by the annual encampment is much to be pitied. But the Grand Army is still insatiate. At the same time that, by implication, it censures the President for his treatment of Gen. Miles, it telegraphs him a request to endorse the service-pension scheme. We so call it, for the proposal to bestow a pension on every veteran sixty-two years of age practically amounts to that. No Republican President has yet yielded to that demand. Were Mr. Roosevelt to do so, the Grand Army would simply go on to exact something more, and even more preposterous.

Over-zealous friends of the President have been trying to explain away his action directing the Governing departments to employ union and non-union men impartially. Mr. Roosevelt has been in no such apologetic mood, for he now publishes the identical note addressed to the several departments. In it he calls attention to the finding of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, which judged "that no person shall be refused employment or in any way discriminated against on account of membership or non-membership in any labor organization"; and declares that it is "mere elementary decency to require that the Government departments shall be handled in accordance with the principles thus clearly and fearlessly enunciated." In this matter the President is on so firm ground that he need not fear the machinations of enemies who seek to put him in the light of an opponent of the labor unions. Naturally, he has taken his course with little parade, for it is probable that the cases of discrimination in favor of unionists are few and unimportant. It is the principle that is important, and the President has shown courage and statesmanship in refusing to let the unions hope for a moment that the nation will aid them in coercing unwilling workmen into the ranks of organized labor.

The conviction of Parks, the labor blackmailer, is a most salutary event. To the great advantage of the community, the jury took a large view of its duty. By its verdict, it stamps Parks not only as an extortioner but as a shameless perjurer. It holds him up to his fellows as a man who cannot be believed on oath. If the jury had placed the slightest credence in the testimony which Parks gave so unblushingly, it would have acquitted him. But the honest good sense of the jurymen was evidently affronted by the impudence with which he perjured himself, as they were plainly convinced that he did. This, then, is the man who has been taking the building trade of this city by the throat, opposing the plan of arbitration to which the majority of the unions was ready to assent, and plunging thousands of workingmen and their families into acute distress. A jury of his peers has pronounced him a forsworn criminal. The duty of organized labor in New York is plain. Unless it wishes to condone crime and to identify itself with the unlawful methods of a convicted swindler, it will disown him and all his works. The building trades unions now have an opportunity to rehabilitate themselves by repudiating Parks; but we do not believe they will embrace it.

Before Secretary Hitchcock of the Interior Department retires from the Cabinet, we trust that it will be made clear what he goes for. Is it to be on account of alleged frauds in the conduct of Indian affairs and the reported withholding of money received from the sale of public lands and intended for local improvements, or because there are factional squabbles among Missouri Republicans? The tone of an interview last week with R. C. Kerens of St. Louis leads to the conclusion that, so far as this eminent statesman is concerned, the accusations of maladministration charged to the Secretary are as nothing compared with the "good of the Republican party in Missouri." This Mr. Kerens thinks would be served by Mr. Hitchcock's retirement. The charges made against the Secretary, however, are of the most serious character, and require, as we have no doubt they are receiving, the closest scrutiny and investigation. The Secretary's answer, alleging that contracts for the public improvements in question were tainted with fraud and were therefore cancelled, should also be inquired into. What the exact situation in his Department is, it is extremely difficult to say. Were all the rumors afloat to be believed, there would be reason to foresee revelations at least as grave as those in the Postal Department. The arrest on Monday of the United States Marshal for the Indian Territory, Benjamin H. Colbert, lends a very serious color to many of the allegations. This official is accused of using his power for political purposes. Letting prisoners out of jail that they might vote was one of his pleasing pastimes; imprisoning Indians for not voting according to his wishes, another. This arrest may open the way to a general uncovering of the land ring which has sought to profit by the allotment system.

The official announcement that Governor Taft is to succeed Mr. Root as Secretary of War will be most unwelcome news in Manila. The Filipinos have come to regard Mr. Taft as their one safeguard against the conscienceless American adventurers who seek to exploit the islands without regard to the "niggers." The Americans who have heaped abuse upon Gov. Taft for his bold declaration that his administration was run primarily in the interest of the Filipinos, will greet the news with unconcealed joy. But one so devoted to his duty as Governor Taft can hardly have been prevailed upon to change the scene of his official activity except on the assurance that he will still largely control the destiny of the Philippines from Washington, that a worthy successor is at hand, and that his health demands

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his return. How the army will accept the change of head remains to be seen. With Secretary Root the service will part most reluctantly.

We can fancy the disgust with which the "stand-patters" will receive the intelligence that they must prepare to do battle with a new demand for tariff revision, this one to be known as the "Minnesota idea." It does seem a pity to disturb them again so soon. They had just settled down comfortably after their tussle with the "Iowa idea." In that, we admit, they came off rather well. It would, in fact, take a microscope to discover what remained of the "Iowa idea" after they had done with it. Under the circumstances, they had a right to expect to be let alone for awhile. But here comes a disturber of the peace from Minnesota, a Republican State Senator who has the effrontery to discuss national affairs, and declares that Minnesota wants the duties lowered on lumber, steel, and other commodities. He also says that the West ought to force the issue upon the attention of the next National Republican Convention. All we can say about this State Senator is that he is evidently an upstart and no real Republican. Such talk as his is absolutely dangerous. Nobody knows what may come of it. Does he want to stab Prosperity in the back?

The negro business men assembled last week in convention at Nashville have surprised observers by the "sanity, business-like brevity, and common sense" which have distinguished their meetings. Southern listeners in particular could hardly credit the statements of the successes achieved by some of the delegates. But any Northern observer who makes a study of Southern conditions must be struck by the ignorance of many white men as to what their colored neighbors are doing. In some cases this is wilful blindness; in others it is due simply to the complete separation of the races. We have in mind a prominent Southern banker who last spring declared that the negro was good only for field work or for household service. Within a few blocks of his home there were several negroes who were doing a business of more than $10,000 a year, and one who took in $25,000 annually. One of the strongest banks in his city is conducted by colored men—but of this the white banker was totally ignorant. One of the purposes of the Negro Business League is to let the world know what its members are doing, as well as to encourage their race in toiling upward. The successful men are few in number as yet, but they increase year by year, and invariably win the respect of the better class of white men. Now, when the negro is spoken of as a race, the vision which rises before the average Southerner's eyes is of colored town-loafers or the ignorant and often animal-like plantation hands. Before long, we hope, the vision will include also the law-abiding, self-respecting, independent negro business man.

The Boston *Herald* calls attention to the freedom of opportunity in which the negroes of Cambridge, Mass., rejoice. The city bacteriologist is Dr. William C. Lane, a colored physician. Mr. William Henry Lewis, the Harvard football coach, is now Assistant District Attorney of the United States, after three terms in the City Council and one in the Legislature. Miss Maria L. Baldwin, the head of the Agassiz school since 1889, has six white teachers and several hundred white children under her. Horace J. Gray, a real estate broker, has been commander of Post 30, G. A. R., a white post, with hardly another negro in it. Clement G. Morgan, orator of his class at Harvard, has served five terms in the City Council and Board of Aldermen, and was barely defeated for a seat in the Legislature. The Rev. J. H. Duckery is the colored member of the Board of Trustees of the Public Library. As far back as 1870, a colored man, Patrick Henry Raymond, became chief of the Cambridge Fire Department, in which there was, at that time, no other man of color. A colored policeman has served for nineteen years without ever receiving a reprimand or punishment, and, in all, seven colored men have had seats in the City Council. To this must be added that the spirit of good citizenship is more keen in Cambridge than in most American cities.

Jefferson Sanders, a negro, on May second shot three policemen in a barroom row in this city. Two of the wounded men died. Sanders was promptly arrested and confined in a hospital and in the Tombs until Monday of last week, when his case was brought before the grand jury. That body spent two hours investigating the case and hearing witnesses, and then dismissed the complaint against Sanders. It was shown that he had been badly beaten by the policemen, and that he had drawn his revolver in self-defence only after one of the policemen, Sergeant Gilhooley, had drawn his. We cite this case in order that our foreign critics may know that a negro can still obtain justice in certain portions of the United States. Had the shooting occurred almost anywhere in the South, or in Wilmington, or some cities of Indiana, Sanders would probably have been hunted down by a posse and shot at once because of his color. The Danville riots, it will be remembered, arose out of the shooting of a policeman by a negro, who was himself mortally wounded by his victim. The New York method of investigating such crimes in accordance with the judicial procedure prescribed by law, and without a display of racial prejudice, is the true American as well as the only civilized method.

The latest issue of the illustrated supplement of the *Tageblatt*, one of the most influential newspapers in Berlin, contains a picture of the lynching of a negro in one of the "small North American cities." In the crowd about the hanging negro are policemen and a multitude of small boys. The *Tageblatt* explains the picture in the following words: "The freest nation in the world is anything but the most tolerant, and when it has to do with the negro it is intolerant to the extent of the crassest injustice. The colored man, in the eyes of the full-blooded Yankee, is a second-class man, hardly as important as an animal, with which one would sympathize much sooner than with a negro. Woe to the negro who has aroused the anger of his fellow-citizens by a misdemeanor or a crime." In this case, the *Tageblatt* says, the jail is always stormed and the negro hung to the nearest tree with the connivance of the local authorities. Exaggerated as all this is, it is none the less the view which foreigners are rapidly coming to have of us. Our good name abroad depends upon our putting down lynching. Until then we can only reply to our foreign critics by citing to them the deeds of the sheriffs who defend their jails, or the heroic attitude of the Texas father who saved from the mob the negro who assaulted and probably fatally injured his daughter.

Denver's new charter, which has been framed by a non-partisan convention and will be submitted to the voters for acceptance or rejection on September 22, embodies the tendencies which have been apparent during recent years in municipal government, especially as regards the safeguarding of franchises and the centralization of responsibility. The city and county of Denver have now been made conterminous, and the Mayor's control over executive departments under the new charter will extend even to the appointment of the Sheriff. The only elective officers, in fact, are the Mayor, Treasurer, Auditor, and Assessor, besides the councilmen and judges. The charter-makers were warned by New York's experience against the bicameral municipal legislature. A unique provision is that which makes it possible for an elective officer to be removed by a petition of 30 per cent. of the vote cast for him. In respect to the granting of franchises, the proposed charter goes even farther than the Rush bill, which first gave Denver home rule. Not only can no franchise be granted until after it is submitted to popular vote, but the franchises so granted are still

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subject to "amendment, alteration, and repeal" by the same authority. Corporation interests have promptly attacked this feature of the charter, although the Colorado Legislature has long had the same power of amending State grants. It may be, as some of the charter's defenders have suggested, that corporations find their interests cared for more tenderly by the Legislature than by the entire body of voters.

One effect of reform primary laws will be the exposure of actually corrupt methods for controlling nominations. These have unquestionably been in vogue more or less in every State of the Union, but as long as the primary remained exclusively a party affair, bribery and coercion were kept well under cover. Even under our own law, which in some respects is quite modern, no opposing inspectors are present at the primary, and the will of the machine leader can be accomplished practically without detection or publicity. But all is made plain when both sides are represented. Thus, in Maryland, where a contest is in progress under the new primary law for control of the Republican organization, the faction supporting Senator McComas and that which is favorable to Representative Mudd are loudly accusing each other of bribery; and in their case they have the specifications with which to prove it. No one familiar with Maryland politics will be surprised, or will doubt for a moment that substantially the same evil conditions existed under the old law, including the actual purchase of votes. But the exposure is unprecedented. This may be put down to the credit of the new law, and it is morally certain that as a result the evil must diminish from year to year.

For a man who a few weeks ago professed complete indifference to the Governorship nomination, Mayor Tom L. Johnson of Cleveland is conducting a pretty stirring campaign. In every Democratic county convention held recently in Ohio, the contest for delegates between John L. Zimmerman and Mayor Johnson has been of the fiercest character. In some of the counties where Zimmerman delegates were selected before Johnson came actively into the field, efforts are now being made by the Mayor's friends to have the conventions reconvene and other delegates chosen. In nearly every county where it has proved impossible to defeat Zimmerman, the basis for a contest has been carefully prepared by Johnson supporters. This not only will permit the unseating of Zimmerman delegates, but may give the Johnson faction control of the Committee on Credentials, since, under the rule, no county where there is a contest may have a representative on this committee. These methods did not originate with Mayor Johnson, but it is somewhat surprising to find him making use of them to secure a nomination which he had declared he would accept only if tendered in such a way that he should deem it his duty to obey the imperious and united voice of his party.

At least one "Chamberlain Leaflet" has floated across the Atlantic. It is called "A Lesson from America," and aims at proving from the experience of the United States that England ought to abandon free trade. The method employed is that of the rawest stump-speaker. It takes a few statistics, on the "before-and-after" plan of the patent-medicine advertisements, and parades them, all crude and bleeding as they are, as if they were proof. Thus, the fact that a million more men were employed in manufacturing industries in 1900 than in 1890, is attributed entirely to our protective tariff, as is also the increased production of iron and steel, etc. No analysis, no comparisons, no allusion to the fact that similar if not greater progress was seen in this expanding country under the so-called free-trade tariff of 1846, no reference whatever to our vast system of internal free trade and our rich territory to be developed—nothing but just an unmeaning array of figures. In this country such reasoning has fallen into deserved contempt. Our most ignorant voters cannot any longer be tricked by it. We think too well of British workmen to imagine that they can be taken in by such transparent fallacies.

With Lord Salisbury passes the last of the great aristocratic Prime Ministers. Born an aristocrat, he never wavered in his belief in the right of his class to rule. On one occasion, indeed, he defended the House of Lords with an argument which Gladstone, in his most casuistical moments, might have envied him: he said that it was an ideal Upper House, precisely because its members were generally absent, frequently timid, and universally retroactive. Unquestionably his innate aristocracy was greatly reinforced and deepened by his dislike of the older liberalism and by his distrust of modern tendencies. It thus has very interesting analogies to the neo-Catholicism of the Puseyites or to the pre-Raphaelitism of Holman Hunt. Lord Salisbury was eminently of the "Victorian age." Indeed, many of his personal characteristics and prejudices were precisely those of his sovereign. One can but marvel at the fortune which made Gladstone the life-long antagonist, and Chamberlain the ultimate ally, of Lord Salisbury. For, if the impetuosity and popular qualities of Gladstone were profoundly antipathetic to the Tory leader, there was between them a real tie in character and in scholarly tastes. At some future time diaries and reminiscences may tell us what it cost Lord Salisbury in his personal pride to buy the Liberal Unionists at the cost of a portfolio to Chamberlain; but already it appears that no compromise, among his many, was paid for so tragically. The great Foreign Secretary of his time was to end a brilliant series of diplomatic successes by shouldering the responsibility for Mr. Chamberlain's reckless and disastrous negotiations with the Transvaal.

In view of the uneasiness created some three weeks ago by the rumor that the German Government contemplated an army increase of 9,000 men, the news that it is actually planning for 39,000 more troops was bound to have a depressing effect upon the public mind, as well as upon the Boerse. This may be looked upon as the Emperor's defiance of the Social Democrats. There is no stronger plank in that party's platform than the one denouncing militarism. Its leaders have never failed to recognize and point out the evil influence the standing army has upon the industrial, social, and moral welfare of the nation. At the last elections nearly one million citizens joined their party, which polled far more votes than any other, and now numbers a full three millions. Yet the Government is willing to go right on with its policy of enlarging the army, although quite aware that the new demand will precipitate a very bitter fight in the Reichstag, likely to overshadow all other issues. As for the reasons offered by the General Staff for this increase, they are of the flimsiest. It can get the men, and therefore it ought to have them. Even with them the army will be but one-half of Russia's. But when the Emperor's army is half the Czar's, it will be found necessary to have it at least three-quarters of the size of the Russian hosts. This game can be played indefinitely—until an overburdened people revolts.

Fighting is reported from widely scattered regions of European Turkey. Along the line from Uskub, in old Servia, to Salonica, on the Aegean, several collisions between the troops and revolutionists have taken place, while the news of burning villages on the Black Sea indicates that the presence of the Russian squadron has either incited the revolutionists to action or the Turks to outrage. Caught between pressure from abroad and increasing disorder at home, the Porte has naturally granted the demands of Russia for satisfaction for the killing of a consul. This specific demand is accompanied by stipulations for the reform of Turkish administration of Albania and Macedonia, and it is most unlikely that Russia will in this matter accept mere assurances.

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THE PARTY BUGABOO.

The cry that a wicked Republican conspiracy lurks behind the proposed renomination of Mayor Low, is finding some echoes. A good deal of feigned and perhaps a very little genuine alarm exists about the alleged Roosevelt-Odell-Platt plot. This is, to pose as non-partisan Fusionists for the Mayoralty campaign alone, and then, in a Presidential year, to throw off the mask and "seize" this city in the name of the Republican party. "Well, if it comes to that," some Democrats are saying, taken by the lure, "this is a Democratic city, and will not allow itself to be Republicanized by trickery. Let the Republicans join in nominating an independent Democrat as Mayor, and then perhaps we'll believe them sincere."

So here we are, if these men could have their way, plunged back again with our city elections into the partisan morass. The new Constitution of New York, carefully separating city from State and national elections, drew us out of it, or aimed at doing so, and great was the rejoicing. We were going to be able to set city issues sharply off by themselves. We were to be allowed to stand Tammany up by itself, in all its native ugliness, stripped of every rag of party disguise, and to permit the people to vote directly and solely upon the question of turning the city over to organized loot. But all this chapter of our history, with the long struggle to secure such happy electoral conditions in this metropolis, would now be coolly blotted out by the men who can see in the impending contest nothing but a manœuvre for party advantage. The crafty insincerity with which this partisan color is given the matter by the open or secret allies of Tammany, is obvious enough; but, as some well-meaning people are taken in by these schemers, it is worth while asking what the facts really are.

First and foremost stands the undeniable truth that Mr. Low has not been a Republican Mayor. He has been true to his pledges, and administered the affairs of the city in a non-partisan spirit. The mistakes he has made have not been the mistakes of a partisan. He has allowed no machine to dictate to him. Platt has openly lamented that he could "get nothing" from Mayor Low. Sheehan and Ridder have paraded their hurts in the way of patronage refused them. In other words, the Mayor has distinctly *not* used the offices during his first term in the way in which it is asserted he surely will in his second. He has not even allowed the Citizens' Union to control his use of the appointing power; and certain disappointed gentlemen in that organization are now, in consequence, filled with painful doubts concerning Mr. Low's eligibility.

The simple fact is that no one can dispute the assertion that Mr. Low has honestly lived up to the platform upon which he was elected. He has been a non-partisan Mayor. That he is a Republican in the politics of the State and the country is well known; but where is the evidence that his party affiliations have swayed him as Mayor of New York? The evidence is all the other way. It is said that he presided at one of Gov. Odell's campaign meetings. Now, we frankly say that we think a nicer delicacy on his part would have led him to refrain from taking so public a part in the State election; but it does not lie in the mouth of his new-found partisan critics to blame him for that. Their theory has been, or pretended to be, the same as his—namely, that a stout party man can yet be a non-partisan in city politics. It was upon that basis alone that we pleaded and labored for separate municipal elections. Now that we have got them and they have worked so well, are we going to insist upon wallowing again in the old mire? Have we got to let the city go to ruin simply because to keep it decent this year might possibly help some political party next year? Are Tammany burglars to be allowed to break into the City Hall again, using the old party prejudice as a jimmy? We had fondly hoped that we had outlived that folly.

But, it is reiterated with sinister emphasis, President Roosevelt is interested in Mayor Low's reëlection; so is Gov. Odell; and that proves the Republican conspiracy. Well, so is the entire press of the country interested. From Oregon to Florida, newspapers are intently watching to see whether New York is going to lurch back into the Tammany slough. What friend of good government can help being interested? According to these over-astute discoverers of a party plot, Messrs. Roosevelt and Odell should have relieved themselves of suspicion by coming out openly with the hope that Low would be beaten! But granting that these party leaders expect a certain advantage from the success of Fusion once more, in what can it consist? Plainly, in the continuance of good government, nothing more! Mayor Low in office next year would not lend himself to partisan intrigues any more than during the past two years. That is admitted. The independent Democrats who are so nervous about his renomination confess that he has been "honest." But do they not see what a terrible implication against their own party they tacitly make by their position? It is that Democratic party advantage can be won only by surrendering New York to Tammany. Throw the city to the wolves and then we may hope to elect a Democratic President; keep it clean and safe, and there is no hope for us! Call you that supporting your party?

It is difficult to discuss this absurd dragging out of the party bugaboo with patience. In so far as it is not a transparent trick, it is a foolish misconception. No national party can "seize" this city. It is entirely possible that Mayor Low may carry it next November by 30,000, and the Democrats by 75,000 in 1904. They did last year by 122,000, and what did Mayor Low do, what could he have done, to prevent them? There is a great body of independent voters in New York who can be neither hoodwinked nor coerced. What they are most anxious for just now is a chance to express themselves again on the naked question of an honest city government; and we are convinced that all these attempts to make this year's city campaign a "first gun" in next year's Presidential election, simply fill them with disgust—as they do all who have the city's welfare at heart.

CONTRACT LABOR IN HAWAII AND ELSEWHERE.

Under the auspices of the American Economic Association there has been published a 'History of Contract Labor in the Hawaiian Islands,' by Katharine Coman, Ph.D. It is an excellent example of a certain kind of so-called economic or historical writing to which the public is now treated, and which, when carrying the imprint of some society or association, often passes for a really scientific and authoritative utterance. The author of the pamphlet before us belongs to a naïve school of investigators. Her principal sources of information are "many of the men who have been directly responsible for the laws under which the industrial possibilities of the islands have been developed." "The student of this phase of Hawaiian history," Miss Coman says, "may therefore congratulate himself on securing the aid of living authorities so wise and so trustworthy." With the author's point of view and bias so clearly stated in the preface, it is not surprising to learn later that men who were instrumental in bringing in South Sea Islanders as contract laborers should not be judged by any outside opinion of their activities, "but by their own statements."

At the same time, the point of view from which this monograph is written lends a certain value to it. Here we have contract labor as set forth by its loving friends. No breath of criticism, no question as to its beneficial effects upon the social and political life of Hawaii, has found entrance to its pages. At this moment, therefore, when the cry for forced labor is heard in the Philippines and South Africa, and is even advocated for our Southern States by a prominent Brooklyn clergyman, it is worth more attention than its intrinsic value would warrant. Moreover, as Miss Coman explains, the experience of those Americans who undertook to exploit Hawaii

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in the name of the Great Jehovah and the almighty dollar, is peculiar in that they enjoyed practically absolute immunity from any outside interference for seventy-five years.

"Within the cycle of a hundred years," Miss Coman states, "a primitive agricultural community has been transformed into a highly specialized industrial system, in which every capacity of land and people is subsidized for the promotion of a single product." In other words, everything in Hawaiian life has been subordinated to the needs of the sugar plantations and their owners. Under this kindly rule the native population has decreased from 142,000 to less than 30,000 of the pure native blood. By 1850 this disappearance of the Hawaiians was great enough to deplete the labor market, and there began the first of a long series of importations of South Sea Islanders, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Germans, Scandinavians, Italians, Galicians, Americans, and, lastly, Porto Ricans. But the appetite of the plantation owners was never satisfied for long, after the legalization of two forms of contract labor in 1850. Their chattels were bound for not more than ten years, the remuneration ranging from three dollars a month up; and one hundred and fifteen thousand laborers were actually imported between 1850 and 1897. The better class sought employment as artisans when freed, few Portuguese and Germans, for instance, reëngaging on the expiration of their contracts—plain proof that the status of an indentured laborer was no more tolerable to them than was the colonial system in Virginia to Englishmen who were practically sold into it in their fatherland. In the matter of the Chinese alone were the planters balked in their desires, and then only temporarily. In 1886, against their earnest protests, a rigid exclusion act was passed. As a sop to the sugar-growers there were imported some 3,000 Japanese coolies, but subsequently the Legislature permitted the admission of Chinese as agricultural laborers only, for a term not exceeding five years. If found in any other occupation, they were to be arrested and returned to China. No less than 20,000 Japanese came in during 1899.

The immediate effect of annexation to the United States was the legal prohibition of this contract labor. At once there were twenty strikes among the plantation laborers, whose ingratitude to their previous employers is thus manifest. Even if it be true, as Miss Coman alleges, that the penal enforcement of a labor contract is "inconsistent with the trend of modern labor legislation," the laborers should have recognized that, after all, their employers were actuated solely by the most humanitarian motives, and should have kindly refrained from thus expressing their dissatisfaction. How could society secure itself, Miss Coman asks, if the laborers had not been held to the plantations by labor obligations, and how otherwise could the laborer, "guiltless of property and in debt for his passage money, secure his master against breach of contract"? This was the proper reply to all charges of "man-stealing" and "slave-driving." But we must do our economist the justice to state that she reluctantly sees in the abolition of contract labor a sign of our progress towards a higher industrial order of affairs.

Contract labor is as much an anachronism at this stage of the world's progress as it was when John Stuart Mill wrote his 'Principles of Political Economy,' and declared against persons binding themselves by contract "to continue doing something for a prolonged period." Whether in the Philippines or in South Africa, behind contract labor proposals, with all their assurance of an increase of national wealth, there lie boundless greed and the readiness to sacrifice human beings to the desires of a few wealthy men or syndicates. An English writer in the *Fortnightly Review* admits that forced labor for individuals "savors of slavery," but he would have the State itself place all the young native South Africans in barracks to train them in habits of industry. Professor Jenks of Cornell would have contract Chinese laborers taken by the thousands to the Philippines. The game is the same, whether played in Hawaii, in South Africa, or in our own far Eastern islands. First rob the native of his land. Then, if he will not work as hard as you wish him to, import thousands of coolies, so that all the wealth possible may be garnered from his lands. In the process pay no attention to the rights either of natives or of the imported laborers. Consider them not as human beings with human rights, but merely as means to an end—to be contemptuously flung aside when your sugar crop is grown or your diamond mines exhausted.

SOCIETY'S RIGHT TO KNOW.

Mr. Justice Mayer of the Court of Special Sessions, before whom most of the proceedings of inquiry into the alleged derelictions of city officials have been instituted, has handed down a remarkably clear and convincing opinion dealing with the validity of the so-called "John Doe" investigations before magistrates. His decision is a vindication, so far as his authority extends, of the right of society to find out in its own way whether a crime has been committed, and, if so, who, without palpable injustice, may be formally accused of being its author.

Much that has been declaimed in public about alleged violation in these proceedings of the rights of accused persons, and the invasion of the personal prerogatives of individuals, is shown by the decision to be mere froth. "The law," says Justice Mayer, "has thrown about a person accused of crime safeguards at every point, so that persons shall neither be apprehended nor placed on trial except with caution and deliberation." Before a warrant may issue or an arrest take place, the magistrate must be satisfied that the crime complained of has been committed, and that there is reasonable ground to believe that the accused perpetrated it. One can be held for trial only if it appears on examination, in which the rules of evidence are adhered to and the accused may be represented by counsel, that there is sufficient cause to believe him guilty. If held for a felony, he cannot be tried until indicted by a grand jury. To all this the "John Doe" proceeding, so-called, is a mere preliminary. Though it is instituted only after what is known as a "criminal information," there really is no defendant. The machinery of the court has been set in motion, not to pass judgment upon anybody, not to convict anybody of a crime or to inflict punishment upon anybody, but merely to find out certain things which society for its protection is entitled to know.

That the secrecy of the mere preliminary inquiry has a double purpose, one phase of which is for the protection of the personal rights of an accused person, is made clear by Justice Mayer. These purposes, he says, are, "on the one hand, to prevent the defeat of justice by the flight of the accused, and, on the other, to protect the accused against wrongful accusation or apprehension." The importance of the latter has not escaped the attention of the lawmakers or of the criminal courts, though counsel for Mr. C. F. Murphy, on whose account the proceedings in question were instituted, appear completely to have ignored it. It is a fact, however, that the power of a magistrate to institute a secret inquiry is almost daily used for the protection of accused persons. In the heat of anger, or moved by baseless suspicion, men and women apply to magistrates for warrants of arrest. The justice has no means of knowing whether their stories are true or false, accurate or grossly exaggerated. If he refuses a warrant, some guilty person may escape; if he issues it, some one who is innocent may be branded as a supposed criminal. The magistrate accordingly neither refuses the warrant nor issues it. He sends for witnesses. He examines them without publicity. Nothing which they say can fix conviction upon the accused. It can merely meet the doubt in the magistrate's mind whether the crime has really been committed and whether the arrest of the right person is asked for.

Reduced to these simple terms, it is plain that no injustice is done the ac-

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cused though he be absent and unrepresented by counsel. Were this form of procedure abolished, the alternative would be to arrest him on suspicion, at grave cost to him if he were innocent. There could be no third course, for it is unthinkable that society should content itself with punishing only those crimes which are committed without attempts at concealment. Such contentions as that allegations made only on "information and belief" are insufficient to confer jurisdiction upon the inquiring magistrate, or that the District Attorney's representative has no right to be present, are seen to be mere quibbles in the light of the analysis given by Justice Mayer. Anybody may be present who can aid the magistrate in answering the fundamental question which is before him, and anybody whose presence would retard that determination or render it useless when made, can properly be excluded. Society is merely exercising its right to know, a right which is necessarily paramount.

Of course it is not contended that this power of inquiry cannot be checked and restrained when it invades the substantial rights of individuals. For instance, it is fundamental law that no person can be called upon to give testimony tending either to incriminate or degrade him. But this does not mean that a witness may refuse to answer questions aimed to bring out the guilt or innocence of his "friends" or his associates. "The privilege of withholding information in the possession of a witness, not implicating himself, and of which the public good demands the disclosure, can challenge no sympathy," said Judge Edmond, in the case of The People v. Hicks, in which this question was raised; "and, it seems to me, is entitled to no favor."

EDUCATION AND JOURNALISM.

In a discussion of the courses for students of journalism established a year or two ago at the University of Chicago, one of the noisy newspapers professed itself unable to see any need for such a school. What will it avail an intending newspaper man, it asked, to learn the history of Zanzibar or the internal politics of Korea? There were, in its opinion, only one or two journals for which such information had any value, and of these "no editors ever died." There was just sufficient truth in the statement to have made it worth considering by the authorities of Columbia before accepting the Pulitzer foundation for a school of journalism. What *are* the opportunities which will present themselves to the graduate when he seeks to make use of his newly acquired knowledge in the newspaper world?

He will find, first of all, that the profession bears in many of its aspects a growing resemblance to a trade. More and more men own newspapers in order to profit from them as they would by the sale of patent medicines or of boots and shoes. It is a commonplace that newspaper proprietors are far more concerned to-day with the sums which can be made out of their properties than with the opportunities they may have to enunciate political principles or to insist upon high ethical standards in our national life. The outgrowth of this business journalism is the "up-to-date" newspaper, as it calls itself, which cares as little for accurate and painstaking knowledge as it does for the feelings of the persons with whose misfortunes or notoriety it fills its pages.

Are the graduates of the Columbia school to be fitted for a life work of this kind? It might smack of ingratitude if they should not be, but manifestly they will not be if the university course is to set store by such things as decency, good taste, refinement, and high ideals. The ultimate aim of all education, and particularly of collegiate instruction, is the building up of character. If the Columbia school is successful in this respect, most of its graduates will prefer snow-shovelling to a service which knows little or nothing of conscience and truth-telling, which does not dare say that its soul is its own if the "business office" issues its orders, and which demands of its young men that they shall give pages of space to the latest prize fight, or to the most recent scandal among the ignorant rich. Your truly educated man will spurn offers from the blatant journals, or even from those outwardly respectable newspapers whose opinions are subordinated to their money-making purposes. He will ask with Lowell: "Why shall a man go down to live in his cellar, instead of mounting to those fair upper chambers which look towards the sunrise?"

"Such a school," writes a valued and experienced correspondent, speaking of the Pulitzer foundation, "to be really useful, should teach the opposite of everything that the *World* has been or now is." If it does so, its graduates will, of course, still find many positions suitable to their taste and inclinations. But these openings, if not declining in number, are certainly limited, and will continue to be unless public opinion cries out against those who pander to the basest tastes of the multitude. Instead of entering journalism for a life's work, they will go to the magazines, into publishing-houses, into Government positions—into anything where their training and knowledge of American political institutions will render them of value.

It might almost be said that it is the newspaper-reader who needs to go to school, and not the newspaper-maker. Let the reader but learn to discriminate between honest and upright newspapers and those that sell their opinions as they do their advertising space, and the uplifting of the profession will come quickly enough. For if newspapers create public opinion, they are also singularly sensitive and responsive to it. A general refusal to buy or advertise in a newspaper which persistently sins against good taste and decency, would do far more in a month to "tone up" our daily press than would the graduation of hundreds of "bachelors of journalism," unless some in each class had, in addition to high ideals, the large sums now necessary to found and conduct modern daily newspapers. Until graduates can be assured of prompt and congenial employment upon our daily press, it is absurdly optimistic to say that the creation of a single school insures the "uplifting of the profession" to the position now held by members of the bar or doctors of medicine.

Certainly, the period of transition through which journalism is now passing deserves more attention than it receives. Is the newspaper of the future to be solely a money-making affair or the organ of some wealthy man; or is the press to continue to hold a high position as the greatest safeguard of our American institutions and liberties? These and other questions confront all who would read the future by the past. There is much comfort to be found in the fact that men who have no purpose save to state the truth as it appears to them, are constantly embarking upon new if small ventures, that our technical press gains steadily in dignity and influence, and that our respectable dailies have little difficulty in maintaining themselves despite severe competition. Such papers do not need to recruit their forces from schools of journalism.

MARTINIQUE REVISITED.

PHILADELPHIA, August 20, 1903.

Not quite a month after the first anniversary of the destruction of Saint-Pierre, I again set foot on Martinique soil. A torrid sun was beating down upon the prairie-like *savane* of Fort-de-France, and the tall and richly umbered royal palms that shadow the statue of Josephine had already long begun to show the passing of the rainy season. This is the hot side of the island, and if a temperature of 86 or 87 degrees carries with it no particular terrors, and is not uncommonly high for a region that lies only four hundred miles from the mouth of the Orinoco, it is still something that warns, and compels consideration where an unusually high degree of humidity pervades the atmosphere. There were not many people about, and the city of 12,000 inhabitants showed its usual appearance of monotonous decay. Fort-de-France is perhaps as intensely uninteresting as Saint-Pierre was the reverse, and even now, when it has entirely replaced its fairer sister as the centre of population of the island, it does nothing to relieve itself of the air of weariness which is its chief characteristic. I found no change in the doings of its people since Sep-

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tember. Newspaper politics were, as heretofore, running high, and the editorial columns of *L'Opinion* and *La Colonie* were waging the old "war of races." The volcano was still a part of the hourly food, and its workings were officially chronicled almost daily; but there seemed to be few who were more than passively interested in the extraordinary structure that it had developed—the gigantic obelisk of rock which transfixes the crater-cone, and, like a veritable Tower of Babel, towers over the summit of the mountain to a height of 800 feet and more. And, incredible though it may appear, there are still hundreds and thousands of the inhabitants who to this day have not visited Saint-Pierre.

The silent city remains much as it was at the time of my last visit, nine months before. A litttle more ash has accumulated here and there, and some of it has been taken off elsewhere; but the ruins are the same battered, crumbling walls, unchanged save that they have gained in color through the washing off of the ash-mud that plastered and cloaked their vertical sides. In a few places excavations were being made to recover "treasure" or to locate sites, but the prowlers among the dead were few, and what was recovered was in most cases insignificant. I turned over some rubble-masses beneath which "caked" and burnt papers were projecting, and found that I was dealing with a lesson in geology, and, strangely enough, with one that taught of volcanoes and volcanic phenomena. Several pages of manuscript, possibly escaped from the Lycée or the Communal College, covered with teachings of Vesuvius, Cotopaxi, and Etna (and of Pelée?). It may be that those papers were dictated by the impending storm of Pelée, but who can now tell? The fragment of one of the few books recovered from Saint-Pierre—whose precious brown pages I owe to a friend—deals likewise with volcanic phenomena. It is the 'L'Enfant du Vésuve,' supplemented with a very full account of the destruction of Pompeii, and with a carefully rendered translation of both of Pliny's letters.

One significant change has come over Saint-Pierre. It is no longer an absolute desert, for little colonies of ants and other insects are inhabiting the ruins, and the land-snail has come to live with them. Green creepers and many plants with bright flowers here and there hang about the battered masonry, and from some of the old gardens rise up stocks of the *chou caraïbien* and the banana. And even the few trees that have been left standing on the surrounding heights, and thought to be dead, have sprouted out new leaves, and give a new sunshine to the landscape. Well up on the volcanic slope, beyond the Roxelane, and quite to the Rivière des Pères, these signs of returning vegetation are apparent, and on one side of the Roxelane itself everything is green. But, after all, it is more the immediate foreground that gives these signs of resuscitation, for, farther beyond, and below the hanging volcanic cloud, the grays are as gray as ever, and the valley of the Rivière Blanche, choked with the immense amount of débris that has been thrown into it, is white like snow with the new ash that is periodically being swept over its course.

At Morne Rouge, which fell in the storm of August 30, not a house remained inhabited. The beautiful church under whose partially lifted roof good Père Mary had sought refuge for nearly his last hours, still stands with its foot in the ash. My attendant climbed into the belfry and tolled the bells that hung uninjured from the posts. It was the voice in the wilderness, for there were none to listen to it but ourselves. Perhaps far away on the hillsides, where specks of cottages appeared in the surrounding green, some may have recognized the beautiful resonant tones.

The exquisite woodland that, previous to August 30, bordered most of the road between here and Ajoupa-Bouillon, stood out now as ragged tree-trunks, spectres in the destroyed landscape, with naked arms and upturned roots, begging, as it were, from the new sunlight that surrounded them. Here and there the eye fell upon the returning fronds of the tree-fern and clumps of bamboo, on the melastome and broad-leaved heliconia; but they were merely visions of what had been before.

On June 13, in company with one of the officers of the French Scientific Commission, I made my fourth ascent of Pelée. The passing night promised everything. A few high clouds hovered about the blue and receding mornes that stretched off toward Carbet, but over the volcano itself there was nothing, and the great obelisk, its base fiery red with the molten lava that was being poured into it, stood out in bold relief against the green-blue western sky. We left our quarters early, so as to gain upon the clouds that viciously gather about the summit; but the clouds had preceded us, and already at the breakfast hour, by which time we had reached the former summit, everything was wrapt in cloud and mist, and little was visible beyond ourselves. We succeeded in steering a course across what had before been the basin of the Lac des Palmistes, and in a few minutes stood upon the edge of the great crater. Everything was gray within—not silent, however, for avalanches of rock were being precipitated and tumbled about in ruthless manner, and an occasional ominous roar told that the spirit of the mountain had not entirely departed. For the better part of six hours we vainly strove to penetrate the sea of cloud and fog that hung ahead of us. Each coming gust seemed to give us the chance for which we were waiting, but the rising crater-vapors kept the basin full, and even under a clear sky they allowed only "memories of a landscape" to escape. Although in no way unbearably hot, I found the crater rim uncomfortably warm and humid; it seemed to me more so than on my earlier visits. The actual temperature was only 85 degrees, however.

Shortly before two o'clock, the opportunity for which we had so impatiently waited seemed finally to have arrived. Clouds and vapors died down to one side, and the great tower, its crown hanging at a dizzy height above, began to unfold. Piece by piece was added to it—purple, brown, and gray—until at last it stood abreast of us virtually uncovered from base to summit. The spectacle was one of overwhelming grandeur, and one can hardly conceive of its terrorizing aspect. Nature's monument dedicated to the 30,000 dead who lay in the silent city below, it rises up a huge monolith, 830 feet above the newly constructed summit of the volcano, and 5,020 feet above the Caribbean surface. Nothing of this kind had ever been known to science before, and I felt—although not the first in the field to observe it—that my footsteps had been guided to an unknown world. None of the grandest scenes of nature which I had before seen—the Matterhorn, the Domes of the Yosemite, the colossus of Popocatepetl rising above the shoulders of Ixtaccihuatl, the Grand Cañon of the Colorado—seemed to impress me as this one did; and I am certain, at this distance from the field of observation, that none was more sublime. More restful scenes there certainly are.

In its geological conception, the "Tower of Pelée" means the extrusion vertically of a mass of solid lava, which in its non-fluent condition has been forced out in this way by the volcanic stress reacting upon its base. The entire tower, 300-350 feet thick where its base is implanted, and with a height twice that of the Washington Monument in Washington, is still being pushed up bodily, and at a rate that is all but incredible. During four days of my residence at Vivé the rise, as determined by the French Scientific Commission, was twenty-one feet; and the rate of ascent was far greater still in the preceding month. On the side where the great obelisk has pressed hardest on the encasing rock, the surface is smoothed, almost polished, and shows parallel lines of grooving. The other sides are slaggy, and bear evidence, especially on the side directed to Saint Pierre, of recurrent periods or episodes of eruption. These have not yet ceased.

The great volcano of Martinique is now "plugged" or "corked." How long it will remain in this condition, or how soon it may pass through another paroxysm, the future alone can determine. For the present the mountain presents alike to the tourist and the scientist an object of supreme interest. ANGELO HEILPRIN.

POEMS AND LEGENDS OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

PARIS, August 10, 1903.

M. Gaston Paris, who died a few months ago, was a prominent member of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres; he was also a member of the French Academy. He was preëminently a philologist, and in that capacity he belonged to nearly all the academies and universities of the world. His father, M. Paulin Paris, was a very distinguished man of letters, and the edition which he published (among other books) of the Memoirs of Tallemant des Réaux, has notes which rival the text itself in importance. It would require pages to give the titles of all the memoirs and articles published at different times and in a quantity of reviews and papers by M. Gaston Paris. He became a sort of centre for the serious devotees of literature; his last publication was a quarto volume entitled 'Poems and Legends of the Middle Ages'—the 'Chanson de Roland,' the 'Nibelungen,' 'Huon de Bordeaux,' 'Aucassin et Nicolette,' 'Tristan et Iseult,' 'Saint Josaphat,' 'Les Sept Infants de Lara.' The respective articles all have in common the study of the French poetry of the Middle Ages. "They have another bond," writes M. Gaston Paris, "in so far as they all consider French poetry in its relation to the poetry of other peoples and other times, and are essentially studies in com-

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parative literature." In 'Huon de Bordeaux,' the author has drawn a parallel between French and German epic poetry; in another essay, he has proved the Germanic origin of Oberon, the king of fairyland; he has pointed out the Oriental origin of 'Aucassin et Nicolette,' which, as we know it, is so French in form and in spirit; he attributes a Celtic origin to the story of 'Tristan et Iseult,' which took new shape in England, France, and Germany successively, and has now been popularized by the magnificent music of Richard Wagner. He has shown the identity of Buddha with a saint very dear to the Middle Ages, Saint Jehoshaphat; he has likewise shown the French origin of the very Castilian legend, the 'Infants of Lara,' which in our time took on the stamp of French Romanticism under the pen of Victor Hugo.

The 'Chanson de Roland' is the finest and most truly national of our epic poems. It was altered and underwent a variety of fates when it emigrated, so to speak, to other countries, Spain, Italy, Germany. According to M. Gaston Paris, it holds the first rank among the numerous "chansons de geste" of the Middle Ages.

"It is the soul of feudal France as it existed in the eleventh century, which vivifies and inspires it. Every Christian knight might believe that he was himself the composer of those energetic verses in which he found all his own sentiments, ideas, life; and it is easy to understand that the Norman warriors at the battle of Hastings, at a moment so decisive for their chief and for themselves, felt their hearts full of the rude verses which sung the exploits of France, ready as they were themselves to conquer or to die, and had them on their lips."

The hero is the feudal baron. He belongs to a caste; he appears as a member of a peculiar social organization; he has no duties except to his lord, to the Church, to his companions in arms; he knows nothing of philanthropy. Warlike and feudal sentiments are the moving spirit of his life, and he conceives of religion only in its external and ceremonial aspects.

M. Gaston Paris considers the 'Nibelungen' inferior to the French national poem. "Like the Iliad," he says, "the 'Chanson de Roland' celebrates the great struggle of Europe against Asia; like the Iliad, it fosters and exalts the national sentiment." This character is wanting in the 'Nibelungen,' which is not national. Pagan in its primitive conception, it became Christian in the end, but religious sentiment has no place in it. The only really Germanic trait to be found in it is the absolute fidelity of the vassal to his lord. On the other hand, the German poem is more human; just because it is not national, it expresses more universal sentiments; women have a larger part in it; love, friendship, paternal affection, pacific scenes and feasts furnish more elements to the poem.

The existence of the French heroic poems of the Middle Ages was recognized only at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The eighteenth century was pretty ignorant of them, and we may say safely that if it had known them better, it would have treated them with contempt. I need give no other proof of this assertion than the success which Voltaire obtained when he ridiculed in his 'Pucelle' the heroic Joan of Arc, whom our age deservedly worships. It was only in 1829 that the first fragments of our poems of the Middle Ages were published. To do justice to the bibliophiles, who are often the initiators of important researches and studies, we owe to them the preservation and sometimes the discovery of many *chansons de geste* and poems. M. Gaston Paris enters into many details concerning the poem of 'Huon de Bordeaux,' one of the first published from the old manuscripts. Five thousand ten-syllable verses make us acquainted with the rash and impetuous but loyal, brave, and faithful Huon de Bordeaux, with Esclarmonde, who is very ardent and passionate as long as she is among the Saracens, but becomes pure and tender when converted to Christianity with Auberon, a type of many virtues, high-minded, just, indulgent. M. Gaston Paris studies the origin and history of this type of Auberon. A German poem, 'Ortnit,' of the thirteenth century, has often been compared to 'Huon de Bordeaux.' In it the king of dwarfs, Elberich or Alberich, plays a part somewhat similar to that of Auberon in 'Huon de Bordeaux.' The name Auberon (which was primitively Alberon) is but a variant of Alberich. The poem of 'Ortnit' belongs to a Germanic cycle, part of which was imitated from the French, and belongs to a series of stories from which it is inseparable ('Wolfdietrich,' 'Hugdietrich,' etc.). "In general," says M. Gaston Paris, "in cases of a well-established imitation, *there are a hundred chances to one that the* German has imitated the French. . . . The imitation of a German poem by a Frenchman would be almost unique." He concludes that 'Huon de Bordeaux' and 'Ortnit,' Elberich and Auberon, have a common origin. Both were inspired by a living tradition, by a common legend—very old, probably, since the two French and German poetical cycles have hardly any point of contact.

Many dramas have been inspired by certain episodes in 'Huon de Bordeaux.' In 1593 there was represented in London a piece which was probably made from a translation of the French prose version which had rapidly become popular. Everybody knows the part which Oberon plays in "A Midsummer Night's Dream," but the character which Shakspere gives to the king of fairyland is quite foreign to the primitive character of Auberon; M. Gaston Paris thinks that Shakspere derived his inspiration from Spenser, though the latter only names Oberon, and that Titania is a creation of Spenser's.

The chapter on "Tristan et Iseult" is one of the best in the book. The legend is well known. Its origin is purely Celtic. Nothing is more obscure than the history of the insular Celts after the departure of the Roman legions and the German invasion of Great Britain. Nothing remains, historically speaking, of the long and perpetual struggle between the Britons, the Celts, the Saxons, the Scandinavians. But a great mark was left by this confused story on poetry. Tristan became known to all Europe along with Arthur.

"There is," says M. Gaston Paris, "no more astonishing phenomenon in the literary history of the world than this poetical conquest of Romanized and Germanic Europe by a little obscure and despised people, forced to cross the sea or to take refuge in a corner of its ancient domain, and yet imposing on its conquerors, or on nations to which its very name was unknown, its ideal, its heroes, the music which expressed its soul, and the dreams which had cheered its imagination and consoled its sorrow. This Celtic poetry not only charmed the Middle Ages; modern poetry is still penetrated by its spirit, and owes to it two of its essential elements—the spirit of adventure and love—that is to say, the two forms of supreme individuality and the absolute possession of another being."

An excessive part may at one time have been allowed the Celtic element in the creation of the modern intellectual and moral ideal; there has been a reaction, and great efforts have been made to reduce this influence. Some German critics went so far as to deny the Celtic origin of the legend of Tristan, and discovered for it a continental origin. M. Gaston Paris, though he is a Frenchman, does not accept this view; the names of the legend, the scenery, the geography seem to him conclusive. In the great drama of Tristan the sea plays its part, is always in view. It is at sea, between Ireland and Cornwall, that Isolde and Tristan drink the fatal beverage which is the cause of their passion and their death. "Who does not feel that these images are born in the soul of a maritime nation, whose tribes are disseminated on the shores of Cambria, of Cornwall, of Armorica, and to which the sea was a highroad constantly crossed? How can we suppose that such stories were invented by the French *conteurs* of the twelfth century, who did not know, even by name, before their introduction to the Breton poetry, the Gallic or Armorican shores of the Oceanic coast?" The background of Tristan and Isolde is not the Roman and Christian civilization of the twelfth century; it is a sort of strange barbarism. The men lead an almost savage life, in forests; the kings live in huts; the souls of the heroes are strangely impulsive. Their conception of love is peculiar—it is a love stronger than honor, stronger than blood, stronger than death; the lovers are tied to each other by a chain which nothing can break. Love has a fatal character which gives them superhuman joys and superhuman sufferings. The story of Tristan and Isolde goes back to the tenth century, at a time when the vikings were kings at Dublin, and when there were constant relations between Ireland, Cornwall, and Brittany.

Correspondence.

NOT MOTLEY, BUT JOHN M. FORBES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an article entitled "Taine and his Statue," in the *Nation* of August 13, I find the following:

"Posthumous recognition of great men ordinarily presents few difficulties. For even a prophet whom they do not like, men are usually willing to build a tomb when they are once assured that he is 'thoroughly dead,' as Motley horrified the Londoners by saying that he hoped Stonewall Jackson was."

I apprehend the writer of the article referred to is mistaken in attributing the above expression to J. L. Motley. At the time of Jackson's death (May, 1863), Mr. Motley was not in London, but in Vienna. The reference is, I take it, to a letter of the late John M. Forbes, written from London at that time. Mr. Forbes was in England, on a secret mission intrusted to

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him by the Navy Department. The incident, told in his own words, is given by his daughter, Mrs. Hughes, in her 'Letters and Recollections of John Murray Forbes' (vol. 2, pp. 17-18). It was at a dinner party at Russell Scott's. The Union defeat at Chancellorsville, the news of which had just been received in England, of course largely absorbed attention, leading to "many chilly remarks as to the folly of protracting the useless struggle to save the Union." Mr. Forbes then goes on:

"In one of the pauses which all dinner parties experience, our host appealed to me for information as to the truth of the sad, heartrending rumor that the hero, Stonewall Jackson, had been killed by his own soldiers on the evening of the rebel attack, and at the most critical period of the whole battle. With a hesitating voice, under the boiling feelings which had been aroused by the sentimental stuff which had been uttered, I replied; 'I don't know or care a brass farthing whether Jackson was killed by his own men or ours, so long as he is thoroughly killed, and stands no longer in the way of that success upon which the fate of everybody and everything I care for depends!' Had a naked Indian in war paint, with tomahawk and scalping-knife, appeared at the dinner table, the expression of horror and dismay at my barbarous utterance could hardly have been greater; but, anyhow, we heard no more that evening about the wisdom of concession to the 'erring sisters' and their chivalrous heroes and lamented leaders."

C. F. A.

Boston, August 21, 1903.

Notes.

The new edition of the Letters of Horace Walpole, arranged and annotated and analytically indexed by Mrs. Paget Toynbee—illustrated, moreover, with numerous portraits and facsimiles—will begin to make its appearance in November with the first four of sixteen volumes (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). The accessions exceed 400 letters (100 hitherto unpublished), and there will be not a few rectifications of the text of those already printed. There will be three editions, one limited to 260 copies. After an interval (that is, not before 1906, for two years will be occupied in publication) the Letters of Madame du Deffand to Walpole will follow, under the same auspices. They have never been printed.

'London in the Time of the Stuarts,' by the late Walter Besant, is among the autumn announcements of Macmillan Co.

Harper & Brothers will publish 'Letters Home,' by William D. Howells; 'The Ambassadors,' by Henry James; 'The Heart of Hyacinth,' by Onoto Watanna; Maeterlinck's play, "Monna Vanna"; and the third volume of Poultney Bigelow's 'German Struggle for Liberty.'

A collection of sea-folk tales, 'The Strife of the Sea,' by T. Jenkins Hains, is in the press of the Baker & Taylor Company.

In preparation of a third edition of Baedeker's Guide to the United States, the editor, Mr. James F. Muirhead, is revisiting this country, and would be grateful for corrections or suggestions from users of former editions. He may be addressed in care of Messrs. Scribner.

Thomas E. Watson's 'Life and Times of Thomas Jefferson' is promised by D. Appleton & Co. for October 1.

Two daughters of the late Dr. Samuel G. Howe (Miss Maude Howe and Mrs. Florence Howe Hall) are to retell the story of Laura Bridgman in a volume bearing the imprint of Little, Brown & Co.

S. H. Wolfe has prepared, and the Insurance Press of this city will market, a work of 800 pages entitled 'Investment Directory: Insurance Companies, 1903,' being a description and classification of bonds and stocks held on January 1, 1903, by insurance companies transacting business in the United States.

The late Lord Acton's letters to Miss Mary Gladstone (Mrs. Drew) are to be brought out by George Allen in London and simultaneously in this country. The correspondence began in the seventies.

The Indian Government has decided to publish annually through the Royal Asiatic Society four volumes with historical documents pertaining to India. As reported by the *Athenæum*, the first two volumes will deal with the period antedating the advent of the English, and the next two with the British period. Rhys-Davids has charge of the former series. The first volume will treat of the geography of India with special reference to the data furnished by the Vedas.

Schwetschke & Son, Berlin, announce the publication of a new *Archiv für Reformationsgeschichte*, edited by Walter Friedensburg, and aiming chiefly to publish fresh documents on the Reformation period, especially data from sources not readily accessible. The editor was for many years connected with the Prussian Historical Institute in Rome, and has made a specialty of this literature.

The appearance of Julia Cartwright's 'Isabella d'Este' makes it opportune to revive the same writer's 'Beatrice d'Este,' which appeared in 1899 and was duly reviewed in these columns (London: Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.).

The Club for Colonial Reprints of Providence, R. I., has issued its first publication, viz., 'The Fourth Paper presented by Major Butler, with other papers edited and published by Roger Williams in London, 1652.' Only two copies of the original edition are known to be in existence, one in the John Carter Brown Library; one in the British Museum. The tract first became known to biographers of Williams in 1874, when J. Hammond Trumbull found a copy in a volume of seventeenth-century pamphlets which he purchased. This copy is the one now in the John Carter Brown Library. The present reprint is the only one that has ever been made, and is an exact reproduction of the original. It completes the reprints of the known tracts of Roger Williams. One hundred copies only are printed, on Van Gelder paper, with wide margins; well and attractively bound. Not the least interesting part of the publication are the introduction (pp. xxiii), and the notes (pp. 27-49), prepared by Mr. Clarence Saunders Brigham, the Librarian of the Rhode Island Historical Society. The Fourth Paper played a part in the effort to solve the problem how to secure religious liberty without undermining the power of the State. The introduction and notes call attention to the close relation existing between Puritans on both sides of the Atlantic in this effort.

The sixth volume of Mr. A. B. Hulbert's 'Historic Highways' (Cleveland: A. H. Clark Co.) is entitled 'Boone's Wilderness Road.' Cumberland Gap, where now three States join, was Boone's selection for a crossing of the Alleghanies when, in 1775, he cut out an ancient Indian trail for the pioneers of Kentucky. Of this highway, so important in the settlement of the country and in the history of the West and of the nation, James Lane Allen has said: "It is impossible to come upon this road without pausing, or to write of it without a tribute." Mr. Hulbert's monograph touches upon the influence of topography in history, with special reference to the successive tides that have flowed through Cumberland Gap; and some interesting material relating to the early settlement of Kentucky is reproduced, including Filson's Map, 1784. No other map is given. Like its predecessors of the series, this volume is a welcome contribution to the history of exploration and settlement, and like them it shows haste and negligence in preparation. The variety of spellings of an important geographical name almost calls for Federal interference. The river which in New York is officially "Allegany," becomes, by crossing the line into Pennsylvania, "Allegheny," while in the writings of Roosevelt and others the mountains are the "Alleghanies." Mr. Hulbert, however, prefers to call them the "Alleghenies," and the spellings found for both river and mountains in the authors whom he quotes are as numerous as those of the name of Shakspere.

'Rabbits, Cats, and Cavies,' by the well-known English fancier, Mr. C. H. Lane (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a comprehensive manual for the breeder and exhibitor of all recognized varieties of the pet stock animals in question. Directions for rearing and mating, and details of feeding and housing, are fully and clearly set forth. The author has been a successful exhibitor, and illustrates the book with pictures of his winners. Readers who have any trace of the fancier in their nature will enjoy comparing these pictures with the standards of excellence given in the text. The subject of pedigrees and registration is not taken up—an omission that seems unfortunate in this day of careful breeding. One who is not familiar with the different kinds of rabbits, cats, and guinea pigs will be surprised to learn how many breeds there are and how much they differ from one another. Under the heading of rabbits, the food value of each variety is discussed; the Belgian hare receiving, of course, considerable attention. The book is concluded with a series of interesting anecdotes about pet animals.

Mr. John Whitelaw, jr.'s 'Surveying, as Practised by Civil Engineers and Surveyors' (D. Van Nostrand Co.) is a British manual. Our surveyors are accustomed to deem the British hopelessly behind the times; and there is some foundation for this judgment. This book, for example, says that the most precise method of determining the latitude *is* (not merely might be expected to be) by observations in the prime vertical, and never mentions the zenith-telescope. Yet the great difference in the conditions of the two countries accounts for some differences of practice. Thus, a plane-table (which, until of late years, was hardly known in England) loses much of its convenience where land is so precious that one has to work on such a scale that different points on the

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plane-table are represented by sensibly different points on the map; and in a country where one is often surrounded by neighboring stone walls and hedges higher than the alidade telescope, the plane-table is hardly a practical instrument. This work has a chapter on "Surveys Abroad"; and we are all abroad in this country. We cannot say that the book will be of great value to young surveyors here. Older men may possibly find some hint or two in it that will prove useful.

The 'Elementary Applied Mechanics' of T. Alexander and A. W. Thomson (Macmillan) has barely escaped setting itself down as "an elementary treatise," which, in technological matters, is fast becoming the badge of whatever is ill-digested and heterogeneous. In the present case the appellation may be assumed to mean that the subject is taken up at the very beginning of it; that the calculus of variations and other equally abstruse mathematics are avoided, and that examples are given in the English style. It is confined to the statics of earthworks, linkwork structures, and blockwork. In no other sense is it distinctively elementary, but is a work of the highest value to the practical engineer, introducing solid improvements in the modes of solution of many problems. The authors are old scholars of Rankine, and the volume has a portrait of Rankine as its frontispiece; but why is it that Rankine's really great genius is not appreciated in Scotland? Is it that he was one of the authors of the mechanical theory of heat, so that to praise him unreservedly might sound like depreciation of Kelvin?

'Electricity as Applied to Mining,' by Arnold Lupton, G. D. Aspinall Parr, and Herbert Perkin (D. Van Nostrand Co.), is a work which a civil and mechanical engineer, an electrical engineer, and a mining engineer have put their heads together to produce, and has the appearance, upon such examination as we have been able to make of it, of inaugurating in a satisfactory manner a subject which no work in our language has hitherto treated; the very practice of lighting and working *mines by electricity being itself* one of the novelties of our generation.

The unparalleled growth of the manufactures of the United States from two hundred million dollars in 1810 to thirteen thousand millions in 1900 is traced, in the *National Geographic Magazine* for August, by Mr. O. P. Austin, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics. After showing the progress in each of the last five decades of the total value of the manufacturing interests, their relation to agriculture, distribution, etc., he treats of special branches such as iron and steel, coal, copper, and cotton. A comparison is instituted in most of these with France, Germany, and the United Kingdom, showing that in some instances the growth of this country has been equal to that of all combined. In railways, indeed, we exceed all Europe by 12 per cent. In 1850 Europe had fourteen thousand, this country nine thousand, miles of railway. In 1902 there were 179,000 miles in Europe and 200,000 in the United States. Among a great number of suggestive statements, one has a peculiar interest: "We are accustomed to think of the New England and Middle States as the chief seat of the manufacturing industries, and it is rather surprising to know that the centre of the manufacturing industries has steadily moved westward until it is now located in the State of Ohio. It is equally surprising to know that Ohio ranks first of all the States of the Union in the manufacture of carriages and wagons and of clay products, and second in agricultural implements and in iron and steel manufactures. Illinois holds first rank in the manufacture of agricultural implements, cars, bicycles, and distilled liquors, and second in men's clothing, furniture, musical instruments, soap, and candles. Wisconsin ranks first in lumber and timber production, Minnesota first in flour manufacturing, Missouri first in the manufacture of tobacco, Texas first in the manufacture of cottonseed-oil cake, Colorado first in lead, and California first in explosives, wines, and preserved fruits. The various manufacturing interests have extended far into the interior of the country, and in some cases across the entire continent." The whole subject is graphically illustrated by means of twenty-four diagrams.

Polar research is the principal feature of the *Geographical Journal* for July. Sir C. Markham summarizes the first year's work of the National Antarctic expedition, to which is appended the report of its commander, Capt. R. F. Scott. The exploration of the Parry archipelago is described by Capt. Otto Sverdrup, the head of the second Norwegian polar expedition in the *Fram*, with numerous illustrations and a sketch of the geological results. It is not too much to say that by this work, carried on for four and a quarter years, "the whole problem of Arctic geography has now been solved." Unlike the region about the south pole, an abundance of animal life, "especially musk oxen and smaller game, such as hares and ptarmigan, as well as foxes and wolves," was found in the newly discovered lands. But Capt. Sverdrup does not make mention of meeting any human beings, though "almost everywhere we discovered the remains of Eskimo habitations, winter houses built of stone and whalebone, as well as traces of tents, meat cellars, and fox-traps. These occurred upon almost every headland along the south and west coasts, and we also came across indications of human beings having visited the inner parts of the fjords." At one place, besides the usual Eskimo remains, there were two round towers built of stone.

The continued progress of Egypt under British rule is shown by the report upon its commerce, in the Consular Reports for August, by the late Consul-General, John G. Long. From the customs returns for the first quarter of the present year it appears that there has been an increase over the corresponding period of 1902 of five and a half million dollars, nearly two-thirds being in the exports. In these, cotton still holds the first rank, but next in importance is eggs, of which more than seventy-two millions were exported, nearly all to England. The trade with the United States, though still small, is increasing, the imports from this country having more than doubled, and the exports being nearly a third larger.

Attention may be called to the supplementary list of books from Township [School] Libraries, just issued at Madison, Wis., by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. It is accompanied by a price list.

The genealogical passion in Massachusetts secured from the last Legislature a Vital Records Act, under which, *e. g.*, in Essex County the Essex Institute is enabled to print the births, marriages, and deaths in the cities and towns of that county from the earliest period to the middle of the nineteenth century. The Institute will go beyond the town clerk's record, supplementing it from church books, family Bibles, and other private records, gravestones, etc. Three copyists are already at work on Marblehead and Manchester records.

The high-water mark in the attendance of women at the German universities is evidently of the past. The marked decrease that appeared in the report of the winter term of 1902-1903, when the total was 1,271 in the twenty-two German universities, has been followed by another step backward, the enrolment during the present summer term being only 850. The chief cause for this retrogression is the fact that the Prussian authorities have passed stringent enactments making it anything but an easy matter for foreign women to enter a university of the kingdom. This was done chiefly because the testimonials presented by these candidates, notably the graduates of Russian women's gymnasia, proved very unsatisfactory, and both the universities and the polytechnic schools were compelled to keep off an unwelcome contingent. The decrease in the women's attendance has accordingly been most marked in Prussia, where the female enrolment is only 529, as compared with more than 900 last semester. Kiel is the only Prussian university with an increase of women, viz., 14 to 17, while Greifswald now has not one. Quite naturally there has been an increase in the two Baden universities, as it is only there that women are admitted to matriculation and examinations. The contingent at Heidelberg has advanced from 42 to 92, and at Freiburg from 14 to 22. The singular phenomenon that, notwithstanding the fact that at these two institutions alone women enjoy equal advantages with the men, they do not flock there, is explainable by the very small percentage of women who purpose completing a course and taking a degree; what they want is to enjoy the instruction of the best professors, and these are usually found at the Prussian institutions.

—'Ten Thousand Words Often Mispronounced' is the title of a useful little "handbook of difficulties in English pronunciation," by William Henry P. Phyfe (Putnams). It is a revised and enlarged edition of an earlier work by the same author called 'Seven Thousand Words Often Mispronounced.' This is alarming, for many people lack a vocabulary of ten or even seven thousand words; and while it is creditable to the author's enterprise to have added three thousand to his list, the first impression upon the mind is, that the reader mispronounces most of the words which he uses. A further examination will, however, restore a little of his self-confidence, for he will find himself occasionally compelled to doubt the infallibility of his guide. For instance, Walker is quoted as saying that *de'corous* is as bad as would be *ca'norous* or *so'norous*; but in the same breath

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the author gives it as allowable. This is at least puzzling; it would have been better to omit the citation from Walker, or to have omitted *de'corous*. But this is perhaps an oversight. In most cases the author is clear and does not err on the side of liberality. We notice some omissions. For instance, if Tuesday is not to be pronounced *Toosday*, nor duke *dook*, surely we should be warned against *constitootion* and *institootion* and *restitootion*, especially as among the three thousand additional words *institoot* is placed under the ban. Some of the words given are foreign. Here we note with pleasure that the author has discovered a mispronunciation or two that we should have put down as almost inconceivable if we had not ourselves heard it. *Bona fide* is so commonly used as to be almost English; we can support Mr. Phyfe as authority for the statement that there are those who actually make it so by treating *fide* as an English word of one syllable.

—'Beginnings of Rhetoric and Composition,' by Adams Sherman Hill (American Book Company), is designed chiefly for "pupils in secondary schools who are learning to express themselves with the pen." It is full of practical exercises, and, though a handbook for teachers, is at the same time an interesting and original treatise. It is divided into three parts: "Correct and Incorrect Forms of Expression," "Essentials of Composition," and "Qualities of Expression," and introduced by a chapter on "Good English Defined," in which the author attacks a difficulty that never has been and possibly never will be overcome to everybody's satisfaction. Good English is admittedly what we desire to use; but what is "good English"? The test, according to Mr. Hill, is *present, reputable*, and *national* use. But unfortunately in the case of English there are two equal, independent, and sovereign nations concerned, and hence we have a divided authority, and it is often impossible to say more than that you must use the locally sanctioned expressions. In other words, there are often two national usages, and the American who would speak good English in America must speak good American English and vice versa. Thus, an American who should habitually speak of *coals, maize, stopping* (teeth), *tinned* (food), *reel of cotton* (for spool of thread), *lift* (for elevator), etc., would be suspected of affectation. But after all, there are the *apices* of language; the real tests of good English lie in grammar and composition, not in isolated words; and, as to grammar and composition, as any one can see by looking through Mr. Hill's pages, there is no substantial difference between good English and good American usage.

—Under the title of 'More Money for the Public Schools' President Eliot republishes three addresses to teachers delivered in 1902 (Doubleday, Page & Co.). They make a small volume of less than 200 pages, but cover a wide field. The first address offers facts showing the inadequate pecuniary support given to the public-school system at present, and appeals to the public for more "because of the failures and shortcomings in American education." This is the least satisfactory of the three, because the connection between the amount of money expended on education and the "shortcomings" on which Mr. Eliot dwells is to most minds not very clear. The "shortcomings" are admitted vices of American society, drunkenness, gambling, a blackguard or "yellow" press, industrial disturbance, violence and oppression, laxity of the marriage tie, bad city government, bad police, etc. Mr. Eliot is an avowed optimist, and consequently the picture he draws here of shortcomings is all the more striking; but the doubt which suggests itself to the mind of the reader is how far a larger expenditure of money on the public schools will correct these evils. Mr. Eliot's theory seems to be that a perfect school system (for we must suppose that the chief end of the money is to perfect it) would result in turning out perfect citizens, and perfect citizens would, *ex vi termini*, neither abuse the right of divorce, nor beat and maim their fellows to make them go on strike, nor burn negroes at the stake, nor defy the law in any way. But in fact the development of such "shortcomings" has gone on *pari passu* with the development and endowment of our educational system. So far as the evils complained of come from a lax administration of the law, they are properly administrative and political, and it is a mistake, in our judgment, to cultivate the idea that larger expenditure of money on the schools will have any appreciable effect on them, for it diverts public attention from the only possible effective remedies of an immediate sort.

—The second essay, asking for more money for the public schools "because of the gains made in 'American education,'" is more successful. Here Mr. Eliot is certainly at home, and makes, as he also does in the third address, on "The Needs of American Public Schools," many important and striking points—*e. g.*, that a pension system is a crying need of our school system. Pensions after a certain term of service would cost something, but not so much, directly and indirectly, as the present system, or want of system, which involves the "not uncommon method of keeping enfeebled or aged teachers and even superannuated or partially disabled teachers, at work on their full salaries." Another reason for more money is the fact that it is absolutely required in order that the individual pupil shall receive the attention to which he is entitled. The number of pupils placed under the care of a single teacher in the different school systems of the United States varies from forty to sixty. "The higher number is monstrous, and the lower far too large." Twenty-five, Mr. Eliot thinks, ought to be the limit, and no one will think this overliberal. Another expensive but necessary improvement is "the introduction of selection among studies as early as ten years of age." Unless this is done, and done soon, the public schools will "cease to be resorted to by the children of well-to-do Americans." The private and endowed schools offer a choice of foreign languages as early as ten years of age and even earlier. The volume as a whole is an extremely interesting and valuable contribution to the literature of the subject.

—The work of following up Gibbon which has been done in general by Professor Bury, is carried forward in the case of a particular incident by Mr. Edwin Pears 'The Destruction of the Greek Empire and the Story of the Capture of Constantinople by the Turks' (Longmans) has been written in the light of important materials which were unknown to Gibbon, and also with a desire of readjusting the point of view. Gibbon, in his account of the last struggle between Constantinople and its Moslem enemies, employed all the sources then known; but he had the misfortune to draw his information from authors who were bitterly hostile to the Byzantines. In 1439 the Greek representatives at the Council of Florence had made virtual submission to Rome, but their action was repudiated by the Greek Church at large. Thus the last fourteen years of the Eastern Empire witnessed a fierce feud between Greeks and Latins, which left its mark upon the historical literature of the age. Gibbon found in the hostile writings of the Latins enough to confirm his prejudice against the theological hair-splitting of the East. It is the function of Mr. Pears to give the debates over the Double Procession their proper place as a motive force. "When writing of this period," he says, "Gibbon did not realize that the religious question was nearly always a political one, and that union with Rome meant subjection to Rome. But unless it be realized how completely the citizens of Constantinople and the other great cities of the Empire were engrossed with semi-religious and semi-political questions, no true conception of the life of the Empire can be formed; these questions were of interest not merely to churchmen, but to all." Chief among the new documents which Mr. Pears employs are the diary of the Venetian Nicolò Barbaro, and the life of Mahomet by the Greek Critobulus. Of these the latter is perhaps the more interesting, although Barbaro's narrative of the siege bears marks of great honesty. Critobulus was a Greek who took service under Mahomet after the Turkish victory, and admitted freely the best qualities of the conquerors without losing his natural sympathy for his own people. While Barbaro and Critobulus are the most important of the new authorities, additional information is supplied by a large number of minor writings, and Mr. Pears has ample warrant for his volume. Like the works of Mordtmann and Millingen, it represents an original and thorough examination of all the contemporary accounts that are known to exist, and it is the first book in English which covers the ground with great fulness of detail. Mr. Pears has already become a recognized authority on the Fourth Crusade, and his residence at Constantinople supplies him with the local inspiration which is so valuable for an historical essay of this kind. Experts in historical terminology may be interested to know that Mr. Pears differs from Freeman and Professor Bury regarding the use of the term Eastern Roman Empire—at least in its application to the last days of the Byzantine régime. The state of which Constantinople was the capital had used a coinage with Greek inscriptions since the days of Heraclius, was the centre of a Greek church, and was known to the West as the Greek Empire. Hence Mr. Pears adopts this phrase in the title of his excellent monograph.

—From Lemcke & Buechner we receive the first two volumes of the new (sixth) edition of 'Meyer's Grosses Konversations-Lexikon' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut). There is an irresistible tendency to enlargement in the periodic rewriting of

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this standard work: the stock articles must be continued to date; new themes (like Appendicitis) claim a place; competition causes the illustrations to be multiplied. Under America, for example, there now appears a chronological table unknown to the fourth edition (the nearest to hand), showing the principal events in continental, interstate, and foreign relations, beginning with our Senate's assent to the House Chinese Exclusion Bill in July 3, 1884, and ending with the realization of the Cuban Republic last year; a handy conspectus. In general, the United States receives less attention than is desirable. The brief article on John Quincy Adams would have been scarcely made longer by mentioning his authorship of the "Monroe" Doctrine, and of that view of the war power over slavery which had so much weight with Lincoln in determining the emancipation proclamation. Nor would one suspect from the statement that the ex-President held an "independent" attitude in the House, that this was the most brilliant part of his career, and potent in the development of Northern resistance to slaveholding aggrandizement and aggression. Under Architecture we find named two leading technical journals in this country, but neither in the text nor in the illustrations is there any exemplification of our skill or our problems in the builder's art; no American statue enters into the pictorial muster from ancient times to Begas's Wilhelm I. (the curious parallel of Saint-Gaudens's Sherman). Of the illustrations, in number, variety, and excellence, accompanying A to Bismarck, we can speak only in praise. We mention a map of exploration in Central Asia, and portraits of the chief African explorers; several maps of the Dark Continent, a fine one of Egypt and Abyssinia; many plates of fauna and flora; plans of Antwerp and modern Athens; plates ethnological for Asia, Africa, and Australia, geological for the Alps; maps of Baden, Bavaria, and Belgium.

CHARLES JAMES FOX.

Charles James Fox: A Political Study. By J. L. Le B. Hammond. London: Methuen & Co. 1903.

What are we to think of Charles James Fox? This seems an odd question at this time of day, but it is raised by Mr. Hammond and possesses a certain interest.

Our author has no doubt whatever as to the proper answer to his inquiry. Fox is, in his eye, everything that is lovable, great, good, and wise; and any man who at any time opposed him, whether it were George III. or Pitt or Burke, will be found to be in the wrong. Mr. Hammond's book is, as he truly says, "in no sense a biography"; "it is an attempt to portray the great ideas Fox stood for, to vindicate the essential consistency of his career, and to appreciate the magnanimous inspirations he gave to politics." Mr. Hammond admits himself to be inspired by Trevelyan's 'Early Life of Charles James Fox' with "a sentiment which it is perhaps not an exaggeration to describe as a personal affection for the great Whig statesman." He comes forward, therefore, as a eulogist of his hero, and, let us add, as a eulogist who, as far as one can judge, possesses no special sources of information which were not open to any one else who has written on Fox's career, and were not well known to any one interested in the political history of England during Fox's lifetime.

If we ask why it is that Mr. Hammond has a "personal affection" for Fox, the answer lies ready to hand. Mr. Hammond, like Joseph Surface, or some one of Joseph Surface's admirers, "loves a man of sentiment"; and Fox, for good and bad, was, throughout life, the statesman of sentiment. The plain truth is that, even to bring out the best side of Fox's character, it would have been well if Mr. Hammond had placed a curb on his own personal affection, and tried to make a free use of whatever critical judgment he may possess. When readers are in substance told that a statesman whose whole career was, from one point, a lamentable failure, and whose faults were at least as conspicuous as his extraordinary talents, was (subject to a few youthful errors) the best and the wisest among the politicians of his day, it is a little difficult to do justice to the gifts and to the generous impulses of a man who, with all his faults, excited far more love among his followers than do most statesmen.

Let us put aside, however, the spirit of opposition almost inevitably engendered by Mr. Hammond's undiscriminating admiration, and, taking Fox as what he really was, namely, the statesman of sentiment, try to weigh his undoubted talents and virtues against his equally undoubted faults.

Even in considering the best side of Fox's character, it will be well to set aside one or two traits on which Fox's biographers dilate *ad nauseam*, but which have hardly any real bearing upon his statesmanship. What, for instance, does it matter that he was a good classical scholar, that he had a passion for Euripides, or that, when arrested (or on the point of being arrested) for debt, he consoled himself, though he hardly can thereby have given much comfort to his creditors, by reading Herodotus? It would have been much more to the purpose to show that he felt some regret for preëminently discreditable extravagance. Charles Surface was in so far a better man than Joseph Surface in that he was not a hypocrite; but, after all, Charles Surface was a very sorry sort of hero. Then, again, Fox's amiability and his personal charm (which was compatible, by the way, with a great deal of easy-going selfishness, or at least self-indulgence), though they account for the love of his friends, ought hardly to go for much when we try to measure his statesmanship. It were desirable that, at this time of day, critics should try to dismiss from their minds Fox's scholarship, his lovableness, and his wit, and fix their attention on the strong points of his statesmanship.

His strength, which was very real, lay in three qualities—the first two of them intellectual, the last moral. He was a consummate debater—the most skilful debater, it is probable, that the English Parliament has ever produced; he had also the capacity, always combined with genius for debate, for strenuous work and for mastering the details of business. These two intellectual gifts would have been of themselves enough to make Fox eminent among the men of his day. Yet it is not on his oratorical genius nor on his capacity for mastering intricate affairs that Fox's fame really rests. Such lasting reputation as he has is due to insight given by capacity for generous emotion. The well-known Roman Catholic lawyer, Charles Butler, has, in his reminiscences, left a comparison of Pitt and Fox, the sum of which is that, in nine questions out of ten, Pitt's judgment was right where Fox's judgment was wrong, but that the tenth question on which Fox was right was of more importance than all the other nine on which Pitt was right. This estimate is unduly favorable to Fox; still it has a real significance. It means that Fox's sentiment, his love of liberty, or his hatred of injustice, led him aright in cases where the far sounder judgment of Pitt, because it was accompanied by a certain coldness of nature, was at fault. It is on the generosity of Fox's sentiment and the insight or foresight acquired thereby, that a judicious eulogist must insist. Fox, it may be said, guided by the transcendent genius of Burke, denounced the folly and wickedness of the war with the insurgent colonies. Fox, again guided by Burke, was roused to indignation by the real or supposed iniquities of Hastings. Fox saw a very little way into the nature of the French Revolution, but his love of liberty made him sympathize with the French people in their struggle for freedom, and open his eyes to the likelihood, to which abler men than himself were blind, that a coalition which threatened the restoration of the *ancien régime* and the dismemberment of France would rouse the desperate resistance of French national feeling. He felt for the grievances of Roman Catholics and Dissenters; he perceived, at any rate more clearly than did Pitt, the dangers of a union enforced upon Ireland against the wishes of a large part of the Irish people—and here, too, it is possible, though not certain, that he was guided by sympathy with what we should now call the spirit of nationality. He was the friend of civil and religious freedom at a time when the love of freedom was in many men almost extinguished by their hatred of the enormities committed in the name of liberty. Fox was the statesman of sentiment, and in many respects his sentiment was generous and therefore partook of wisdom.

Never was there a man who more certainly than Fox displayed to the world the weak side of his good qualities. With his extraordinary oratorical powers, with his personal charm, with all his capacity for feeling and expressing generous emotions, he never, unless for a few months after the fall of Lord North, commanded the confidence of Englishmen; and the people of England were right in refusing to give him their trust.

His character was marred by two fatal defects—want of seriousness and lack of sound judgment. His superficiality or want of seriousness is a trait on which it is worth while to insist, because it lies at the bottom of half if not all of his practical errors. His admirers who boast his skill in debate, should remember that this rhetorical gift was displayed quite as strongly while he was parading as an out-and-out Tory in the Government of Lord North as when he was posing as the friend of liberty and threatening to bring Lord North to the scaffold. They should remember that the youthful Charles James Fox, as the unconverted Tory, bore a very strong resemblance to Charles James Fox the con-

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verted Whig. His want of seriousness comes out at every turn. Lord North, at any rate, knew that the most violent invectives of Fox meant nothing. The leader of the Opposition had been pouring forth his scathing denunciations upon one of North's colleagues. When the debate was over, "I am glad, Charles," said his Lordship, "that you did not turn upon me to-night, you were in high feather." The compliment would have seemed to many men an insult; it meant, and Fox must have known it meant, that Fox's philippics were a rhetorical exercise, and had little more reality than has the declamation of undergraduates at a debating society.

Fox's want of self-control is illustrated by his incapacity to tear himself away from the gambling tables, where he lost not only his money but his character as a serious statesman. He seems hardly to have known what character meant; he never understood that Englishmen are governed in the long run by their morality, and therefore to the end of his life never saw why the coalition with North, whom Fox had denounced as the most incapable and infamous of Ministers, shocked the just moral sentiment of the public. Mr. Hammond, though his language is a little uncertain, apparently wishes on this matter to urge some kind of plea in arrest or in mitigation of judgment. If this be his intention, his labor is thrown away. Nothing but the production of new and unknown facts can avail to affect the verdict pronounced by men so little inclined to underrate the Whig statesman as Macaulay and Lecky. Fox has been found guilty of the grossest of political blunders, and the blunder originated in a want of seriousness. Even where Fox's kindliness and generosity might have kept him right, he falls a victim to the same fault. The Prince of Wales, by his own mendacity, led Fox to tell publicly an untruth, and an untruth which calumniated Mrs. Fitz-Herbert. Fox thought it enough to cut the Prince for a year. Fox sympathized with Grattan in resistance to the union of Ireland with England, but Fox did not feel it a duty to express his opposition in Parliament; but duty was one of those elementary ideas hardly intelligible to the lovable man of sentiment.

Here, however, we touch on that singular want of judgment which was not in reality want of sense nearly so much as the lack of a certain kind of morality. Fox's whole career was curiously influenced by personal feeling. A not unfounded dislike and distrust of George III. blinded him, as it did most of the Whigs, to the King's possession of political skill or cunning, and still more to the fact that the King's strength lay in his sharing the feeling of the nation. Fox, from personal feeling, never felt the contempt which every man of insight ought to have entertained for the Prince of Wales. He was certainly prepared to snatch power by the influence of the Prince as Regent, when he had ostentatiously made it his object to resist the influence of the King. His whole view of Parliament was, in a man who to Mr. Hammond represents Liberalism, almost grotesque. He began political life by urging on the House of Commons in the conflict with Wilkes, which was a conflict in reality with the nation. In 1783 he denied the Crown's right of dissolving Parliament, and, in denouncing a "penal dissolution," denied that right of an appeal to the electors which is the very basis of our modern Constitutionalism. A Whig might drink occasionally to the sovereignty of the people, but the Whig creed, as entertained by Fox, was summed up in the sovereignty of the House of Commons. His childish notion, connected with family prejudices, that Lord Hardwicke's Marriage Act was a violation of natural rights; and his conviction that the taking of the Bastille, stained as it was with cruelty and treachery, was the greatest and best event in the world's history, are queer instances of the triumph of sentimentalism over common sense and statesmanlike insight. But Fox's utter absence of sound judgment is most seen in such a deficient feeling of decent patriotism as to lead him constantly to offend every Englishman's love of England. Referring to the defeat of the Duke of Brunswick by the French, Fox wrote: "No public event, not excepting Saratoga and Yorktown, ever gave me so much delight." These expressions may possibly be excused on the plea that an Englishman in England had a right to sympathize with one party to a civil war carried on between Englishmen in America; but in 1801 he went a step further:

"The truth is," he writes, "I am gone something further in hate to the English Government than perhaps you and the rest of my friends are, and certainly further than can with prudence be avowed. The triumph of the French Government over the English does, in fact, afford me a degree of pleasure which it is very difficult to disguise."

On this Mr. Hammond: "It is rather hard to erect the fugitive pleasure Fox took in the mortification of that party [to which he was opposed] into a serious and solemn impeachment of his patriotism." Such a plea is futile; it admits the truth of the charge that Fox exulted in the triumph of France over England because it involved the discredit of the Tories. Partisanship had extinguished patriotism.

MACDONALD'S MUSLIM THEOLOGY.

Development of Muslim Theology, Jurisprudence, and Constitutional Theory. By Duncan B. Macdonald, Professor of Semitic Languages in Hartford Theological Seminary. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903. Pp. xii, 386.

This is a capital essay in a difficult field. It is one of a series of popular handbooks of Semitic science ("The Semitic Series," edited by Professor Craig, of the University of Michigan), and aims to provide a brief introduction to Mohammedan law, theology, and theory of the state, not only for the student, but also for the serious reading public generally. Obviously, the task of combining the qualities of a semi-popular treatise with those of a text-book for special students is here no easy one, and Professor Macdonald deserves corresponding credit for the measure of success which he has achieved. The book is, as its author justly claims, a pioneer of its kind, as a readable compendium of this somewhat remote material; it is also the work of a thorough scholar in the field, who has delved independently in the original sources, and can speak with authority.

The subject-matter is treated in three divisions. First, a sketch of Mohammedan constitutional history is given, tracing the development of the theory of the state, in its main ramifications, from the death of Mohammed down to the present time. This occupies about sixty pages. Then follows a similar panoramic view, in outline, of the growth of Muslim law, occupying fifty pages. Lastly, the theological development is traced, and of course much more fully treated (168 pages). The disadvantages of such a disposition of the material are obvious. Since very much the same actors appear in each of the three departments, a good deal of repetition is unavoidable; while, on the other hand, it constantly happens that material which would help to an understanding of the growth of constitutional or legal theory must needs be reserved for the section treating of theology, or *vice versa*. It may be doubted, however, whether the difficulty could well have been avoided, under the circumstances. The three subjects named in the title of the book do not form a true unity, but are somewhat arbitrarily chosen from a group of closely allied themes. Given the limitation and the complication which this choice entails, and it is not easy to see what better mode of procedure could be adopted than the one here followed. The three themes could undoubtedly be fused—and perhaps with less difficulty than the author seems to imply, on page 4—in one continuous history; but the result would be a nondescript, incomplete as a history of Islam, and unsatisfactory as a view of the three separate fields contemplated in the plan of the book.

As it is, we have three admirable sketches. The first two, dealing with Constitutional Theory and Jurisprudence, are especially well adapted to their purpose, though occasionally suffering from the formal defect just mentioned. The matter is selected with good judgment and a true sense of proportion. The main lines are plainly and vigorously drawn, and the salient points of the history are grasped so firmly and set forth so lucidly that even the reader quite new to the field cannot fail to get a clear idea of the course in which these currents of Mohammedan life ran. Especially good are the account of the origin of the Fatimids, the setting forth of present-day theories of the Caliphate and the Sultanate, and the luminous brevity with which the principal legal schools are characterized. It is a great satisfaction to see now brought together in convenient form these and many similar matters which have heretofore been found only in scattered and often hardly accessible treatises. The oft-repeated contrast between Umayyads (heathen kings) and Abbasids (pious caliphs) is perhaps too sharply drawn, in so far as it implies that much more "piety" might have been expected from the former line of rulers than they actually displayed, and that the orthodox Muslim historian is really justified in mentioning them collectively with a shudder. And were Mo'awiya and Abd el-Melik ibn Merwan really more "worldly-minded," after all, than Harun er-Rashid and el-Mutawekkil?

In his sketch of the history of Islamic theology, Professor Macdonald begins with the system of doctrine—so far as it could be called a system—which the first caliphs inherited. With the sources and character of the theology of Mohammed and the Koran he does not concern himself. As in the other cases, he traces the development down to the present day; this

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time, however, the mode of treatment is largely biographical, as was to be expected. It must be borne in mind that a compendium of Muslim theology is a novelty in Occidental literature. For the earlier part of the history, there is the excellent treatise by Houtsma, especially, and for the development of philosophy the very good but meagre outline by De Boer; the greater part of the field, however, is covered only by scattered monographs—many of them of great importance, to be sure. The fact that our knowledge of Mohammedan theologians and theological movements is so fragmentary and imperfect at best has tended to discourage scholars from the attempt at a complete presentation, even in outline. Sources of the first importance are still unused, or inaccessible; great gaps remain to be filled. But the result of the present attempt is its ample justification, and its author has no need to apologize. Here, again, the presentation is in the main clear, though the greater difficulties of the subject-matter are apparent, and the enforced separation of theology from philosophy, in particular, occasionally works trouble.

The leaders of Mohammedan thought, Ash'ari, Ibn Hazm, Ghazali, Ibn Tumart, Ibn Rushd, Sha'rani, and their lesser fellows, are treated discriminatingly and with eminent fairness. The picture of Ghazali stands out with especial prominence, as was to be expected from the study which Professor Macdonald had previously given to him and his works. Ibn Sina, as philosopher rather than theologian, is barely mentioned. Some account is given of the rise of the dervish fraternities; modern liberal and mystic drifts, and the Wahhabi reaction from them, are noticed; and the sketch ends with a word on the tendencies of the present day. The whole account is written in an interesting way, it should be added. The writer shows himself to be in sympathy with the native scholars, not impatient with their crudest notions, and—what is comparatively rare among Occidental commentators on Oriental writings—appreciative of their sense of humor.

In spite of such literary excellences as these, which will appeal to all classes of readers alike, the volume is not one which the general public will find it easy to read. Its author nowhere entirely forgets the non-professional reader, it is true; but the one for whom he actually writes is the special student beginning the study of Muslim institutions, and expecting to do more or less reading in the original sources. Hence the multitude of Arabic words and phrases, used sometimes without either translation or explanation (so, for example, pp. 171, 209, 234, 272, 275, 286), and very frequently in such a way as to be really useful only to the advanced student of Arabic. In some of these cases help might be had from the cross-references in the index; but the labor of such a search is too much to expect of even the interested reader. Allusions abound, moreover, which the specialist will understand, but which will certainly be lost on the tyro.

The importance of the book is considerably enhanced by an Appendix (pp. 291-357) consisting of illustrative documents and extracts which the author himself has rendered into English. These are: Shahrastani's classification of Muslim sects; two traditions from the Prophet as to the essentials of Islam; creeds of Ash'ari, Ghazali, and Nasafi; Fudali's system of theology (36 pages); and the analysis of a treatise in canon law. Professor Macdonald's translations are sometimes so literal as to be obscure or inelegant, but the reader can depend upon their accuracy. Any one who is well acquainted with Mohammedan literature of this class will know how to value the wording and phrasing of his version. Painstaking care and a wide acquaintance with the field are everywhere in evidence. The Bibliography which constitutes Appendix II. (pp. 358-367) is well chosen, and will be very useful. In the section dealing with Muslim tradition we miss a reference to the valuable article by the late Professor Salisbury, published in the Journal of the American Oriental Society (vol. vii., pp. 60-142). A full Chronological Table and a good Index (including the technical terms used) complete the book.

The system of transliteration adopted, aside from the fact that it is uncompromisingly stiff, provides real difficulties for the inexpert reader. There is nothing to give any hint as to how proper names and technical terms should be pronounced; not even the accented syllable is marked. The help of the ear is thus denied the reader. It is true that all of these words (excepting one or two which are accidentally omitted) are more exactly transliterated in an index—though even there in an unsatisfactory way; but an index does not by any means meet the need. It should be said, in justice to the author, that this defect is very likely not his fault.

The number of errata due to hasty proofreading and like causes is unusually small. Such are "Emessa [*sic*] in the Lebanon" (p. 163); the mention of the Ayyubids in the table of contents of chapter ii. (p. 34); and the second reference to al-Baghawi in the index (p. 375). On page 187, line 30, a reference to page 38 should be given, or else the name should be written uniformly. A few other minor slips will easily be corrected by the reader. To sum up: This work, unpretentious as it is, is a credit to American scholarship, and will be welcomed everywhere in the learned world as an important contribution to the literature of its class. All those, especially, who are seriously concerned with Mohammedan studies, will feel themselves deeply in its author's debt.

A Naturalist in Indian Seas; or, Four Years with the Royal Indian Marine Survey Ship *Investigator*. By A. Alcock, LL.D. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 8vo, pp. xxiv, 328. Illustrated.

This volume relates to seas, shores, islands, and their inhabitants encountered in voyages in the Bay of Bengal and the eastern parts of the Arabian Sea, northern reaches of the Indian Ocean. It is the work of a good observer and a charming writer; its contents are full of profit and entertainment. Its facts were gathered some twelve or fourteen years ago, but the regions to which it pertains are not subject to as rapid change as some parts of the world, and so the accounts are very little behind the times. Popular interest will be greater in what concerns the isolated little island worlds, their people, customs, and governments, or in visits to shores more or less out of the way; but all of the narrative will pay for time and attention bestowed upon it, and much of it has more than temporary value in its records for future comparisons. The substance of both the scientific and the popular sections has been printed elsewhere, in places not accessible to most readers.

The centre of interest for the student is in the deep-sea research, in the revelations of collections made far below the surface. The discoveries were published so long ago that in some cases the work of subsequent expeditions has rendered modifications necessary, yet the author prefers to reprint his first reports, thereby making some openings for a critic. That there was once a continuity of sea and shore between India and Japan and the Mediterranean is most likely—it is proved by the affinities of the animals found in these various localities; but the author goes too far in asserting identity of species. Such a species as his *Bembrops platyrhynchus*, which he makes identical with the earlier *B. caudimacula* of the mid-Atlantic, differs so much that it had better be kept separate. And so with other fishes. Years ago it was pointed out that the description of *Lamprogrammus* was faulty, but the errors are again published. It is said of this fish that the scales of the lateral line are modified to produce light, that the black skin covering this line is loop-holed opposite every scale to expose a spindle-shaped cavity dug in the scale itself, etc., and that when the lamps are lighted, the fish shows a row of portholes lit up like those of a ship. Evidently this was drawn from a partly-destroyed specimen, which of course is no excuse for republishing. Unmutilated, the black skin covering the line has its armature of scales, like the skin over the body; it has no "portholes"; what Dr. Alcock calls the spindle-shaped cavity dug into the scales is only a remnant, after maceration, of a glandular body that rests upon the scale in the lateral line, and this scale was modified because of its connection with the light-producing apparatus.

Many students of the depths have been disappointed by inability to find living types representative of forms now known only by their fossils. The *Investigator* succeeded no better than other explorers in regard to persistent types. It does not seem reasonable to expect species to persist unchanged upon descent into conditions less and less favorable for the maintenance of life, no matter how changeless such conditions may be. Farther and farther from light, heat, and vegetation, forms more and more degraded are to be expected, as we find them—forms less fitted for persistence because of adverse effects on structure and propagation, and less like the fossils and less adapted for fossilization because of loss of mineral matter in tissues, the firmness of which has come to depend on pressure. Dr. Alcock discovered no primitive types, no connecting links in his collections, but from absence of Lophobranchs and Plectognaths at great depths, he decides that the bathybial fishes, as compared with marine forms near the surface, are somewhat more antiquated. We should agree better if he had said degraded—for it is likely that the feeding habits of Lophobranchs and Plectognaths have tended to keep them near the surface of the abysses.

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Memories of Yale Life and Men, 1845-1899. By Timothy Dwight. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1903. Portrait illustrations.

The years covered by these memories constitute the most interesting and the most eventful period in the history of Yale. The college has become a university, and all its methods have been changed. President Dwight knew it when it was small, when everything was severely plain, when its poverty was, according to modern standards, extreme. He has seen numbers increase, comfort and even luxury succeed indigence, and learning become vastly extended and diversified. These changes he contemplates with equanimity and records impartially. He is no *laudator temporis acti;* knowing by experience how sore a hindrance the scanty resources of former years have been, he welcomes the ampler means which make the acquisition of knowledge easier and pleasanter. Yet, as to the character of the students graduated then and now, while he finds no deterioration, he does not find the modern man altogether superior. His knowledge is more varied and more extensive, but his powers are no greater. Even in the matter of physical culture, he asserts that the hard students of the days when gymnasiums and college sports were unknown were quite as healthful as the average athletes of the more recent times. There is, in his opinion, no greater error than to suppose "that students in the college years lose their health because they give themselves devotedly to scholarly work."

Many views presented here deserve consideration by those concerned with instruction, but the chief interest of the book lies in its account of the former teachers at Yale, and the manners and customs of earlier days. Old graduates will enjoy the characterization of the men they knew; the lineaments are clear, and the foibles and limitations of these half-forgotten worthies are not omitted. But the colors are dim and faint. Readers who have had no personal acquaintance with these men will be apt to think it no misfortune, and to find most of these appreciations rather dull and tiresome. Something the same is true of the descriptions of the life of the earlier period. They may be accurate, and the reflections may be judicious, but they lack life and spirit. To read the book is a little like walking through a cemetery; the monuments are so numerous as to distract the attention; most are commonplace, and none is so striking as to arouse deep feeling. The inscriptions here are more veracious than those carved in stone, and give us some idea of the manner of men there were aforetime. They will not, however, do much more than the generality of mortuary tributes to confer immortality on their subjects. Yet the book contains so much wisdom, the result of long experience and large charity, as will keep fresh the memory of the venerable author long after he shall have rejoined the men whose acts he has here commemorated.

Self-Government in Canada, and How It was Achieved: The Story of Lord Durham's Report. By F. Bradshaw, B.A., Senior Hulme Exhibitioner, Brasenose College, Oxford. London: P. S. King & Co., 1903. Pp. 414.

Mr. Bradshaw's 'Self-Government in Canada' will be found to be not a work on the general subject, but an historical account of Lord Durham's mission and its sequel. Nor does it contain anything very new in the way of facts. It is, nevertheless, a book to be read by any one who is dealing with Canadian history.

Mr. Bradshaw's estimate of Lord Durham is high. Durham's character was a striking, though not very uncommon, union of the social aristocrat with the political reformer. In Canada he went to the verge of the ridiculous in playing royalty. The reformer, however, in him, as well as the aristocrat, was genuine. His Report shows a large and liberal mind. How far it was really his own work, how far it was the work of Wakefield and Buller, seems to remain doubtful. "Wakefield thought it; Buller wrote it; Durham signed it," is, in Mr. Bradshaw's opinion, more epigrammatic than true. The literary excellence, however, seems to point to Buller. Durham certainly exceeded his legal powers in undertaking to banish traitors to Bermuda and threatening them with death if they returned. Altogether, in Canada as well as in the English Cabinet, his hot and overbearing temper was his bane. But his intentions were liberal and clement; his resettlement of Canada shines brightly in comparison with the re-settlement of the Transvaal. One part of the Report provokes a smile:

"I entertain no doubts as to the national character which must be given to Lower Canada; it must be that of the British Empire—that of the majority of the population of British America—that of the great race which must, in the lapse of no long period of time, be predominant over the whole North American Continent. Without effecting the change so rapidly or so roughly as to shock the feelings and trample on the welfare of the existing generation, it must henceforth be the first and steady purpose of the British Government to establish an English population, with English laws and language, in this province, and to trust its Government to none but a decidedly English Legislature."

It is needless to say that the French nationality of Quebec has not been absorbed into that of "the great race."

After reading the Durham Report, the history of the mission recounted by Mr. Bradshaw, and the sequel, one cannot help thinking that all this trouble might have been spared. The people about whose political settlement there was so much ado, were probably above the average in practical good sense as well as in pioneer energy; while it may safely be assumed that they best knew their own interest. Had they been simply let alone without the interference of the Colonial Office or paternal regulation of any kind, they would probably have evolved institutions suited to their need—most likely after the general model of those of England—and administered them economically and well.

State Experiments in Australia and New Zealand. By William Pember Reeves. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

The British colonies in Australasia furnish most attractive material for the student of comparative politics. In the scientific sense, it is true, the method of experiment is not applicable to social organizations. The differences are always so numerous as to make it impracticable to isolate causes and to assign consequences to particular antecedents. But in the case of these colonies we discern one common tendency, whether it be a conscious aim or not. Nearly all the new laws are intended to accomplish what was sought in the French Revolution—the equalization of wealth. By land laws, by progressive taxes, by labor legislation, by state ownership, the attempt is constantly made to discourage the accumulation of wealth in few hands, and to favor its distribution among the people. The French laws of inheritance have not been introduced, nor has the doctrine that rent belongs to the community made much progress. But these experiments may yet be tried; and meanwhile there are experiments enough going on to absorb our attention.

These experiments are literally too numerous to mention, and we can only say that Mr. Reeves's account of them is lucid and interesting. His style is excellent, and his descriptions of the peculiar aspects and qualities of the different parts of Australia and New Zealand constitute an admirable geographical essay. While his sympathies are strongly with the party of progress, he has tried to be impartial, and he has generally succeeded. He is obviously satisfied that most of the "State experiments" are beneficial, and that they will result in better conditions of life. It is well to remember, however, that these colonies have been developed largely with borrowed capital, and that they are near the end of their credit. Their aggregate debt is very large, and their birth-rate is surprisingly small. Within thirty-five years it has declined from 42 in the thousand to 27; and a death rate of 11.36 per thousand cannot be permanent. Immigration, moreover, has greatly fallen off. In the decade ending with 1900 the excess of arrivals in Australia over departures was but 26,515. And, finally, the tendency of population to concentrate in cities is very marked. These facts indicate that future development will be brought about mainly by the present inhabitants and their descendants, using their own resources. What the issue will be we do not feel able to predict, but the process will be intently watched by the world, and every one who desires to understand it will find Mr. Reeves's book serviceable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bonde, Baroness. Paris in '48. London: John Murray; New York: James Pott & Co. $2 net.
Cambon, Jules. Essays and Addresses. D. Appleton & Co.
Forman, Justus M. Monsigny. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Gérard-Thiers, Albert. Technique of Musical Expression. The Theodore Rebla Publishing Co. $1.
Morrison, Arthur. The Red Triangle. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Pratt, Edwin A. American Railways. Macmillan. 3s. 6d. net.
Purser, L. C. M. Tulli Ciceronis Epistulae (Scriptorum Classicorum Bibliotheca Oxoniensis). 2 vols. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 4s. 6d. each.
Pollard, Alfred W. An English Garner. Fifteenth Century Prose and Verse. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25 net.
Putnam, Effie D. Cirillo. Life Publishing Co.
Raleigh, Walter. Wordsworth. London: Edward Arnold.
Roberts, Morley. The Promotion of the Admiral. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Robinson, George L. The Biblical Doctrine of Holiness. Winona Lake, Ind.: The Winona Publishing Co. 25c. net.
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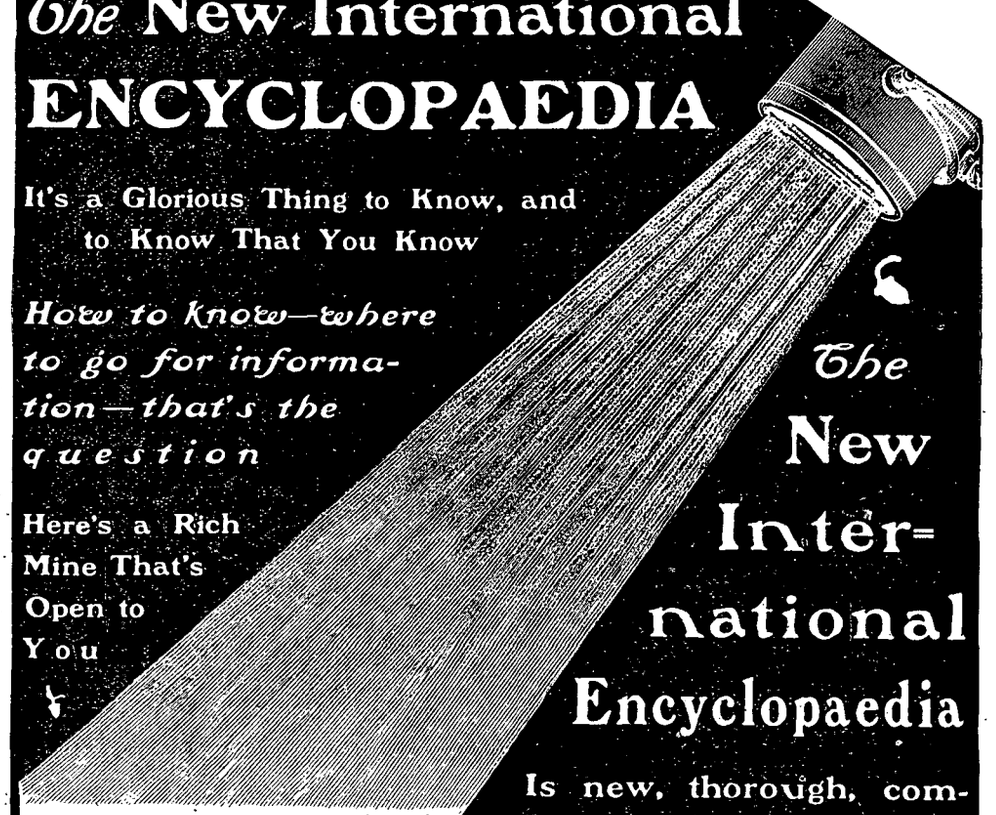

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